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PERSONAL · LIVING · SKILLS · 10

Alberta Correspondence School, Alberta Education.



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Personal Living Skills 10

Module B

CHILD STUDY



Personal Living Skills 10
Student Module
Module B
Alberta Correspondence School
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1621 Personal Living Skills 10

Module B

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THEORIES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Child development is concerned with the growth and development of an individual from birth until adolescence. One's adult life is influenced by many childhood experiences. Theorists have proposed many different ideas on how a child's early experiences influence his adult life. Although not any one particular proposed theory is totally accepted, it does contribute to our understanding of childhood influences on adulthood and each theory gives some added insight.

In this lesson we will focus our attention on three highly influential behavioral developmental theorists - Jean Piaget, Erik Erikson and Arnold Gesell.

JEAN PIAGET (DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY THEORY)

Jean Piaget, a famous Swiss psychologist, born in 1896 provided an approach to studying intellectual development (development of an individual's mental abilities), reasoning and thinking. He became very interested in the reasons children gave for responding as they did in intelligence tests. He felt the reason the children gave for answers was more important than whether or not the answer was right or wrong.

Piaget has made great strides in promoting research in the area of how a child thinks. His approach to studying intellectual development has also had a tremendous influence on the study of all areas of development. Let us investigate Piaget's theory of intellectual development more closely.

Piaget basically describes the changes in a child's way of thinking from infancy to early adolescence which is when he believes most individuals are capable of logical thought. He sees a child's mental development as evolving through four different stages. The stages of development have age ranges associated with them, but these are only guidelines. Each child progresses through the stages in the same order as other children, but some go through faster than others. The speed of mental development depends on a child's experiences in the social and physical world. Some have criticized Piaget for setting the boundaries of his stages too rigidly. However, his theory is only a broad outline of the child's pattern of development and babies may vary widely from the pattern. Also the age at which an individual starts or ends a stage varies, depending on the individual's genetic heritage, environment, socioeconomic position and abilities.

Piaget referred to the four periods of intellectual development as:

1. Sensorimotor
2. preoperational
3. concrete-operational and
4. formal-operational

Sensorimotor Period

The sensorimotor period lasts from birth to one and a half or two years. It is a period of practical intelligence that precedes language. Sensorimotor intelligence exists without language and symbols.

During this period the baby focuses only on the present. He acts but does not think about his actions. He has no understanding of the cause-and-effect relationships. By the end of this period, the child develops a sense that the object continues to exist, even if he cannot see it - a very important developmental step.

Piaget divided this period into six stages. As the child progresses through these stages, his cognitive functioning becomes more complex, more objective and increasingly oriented towards reality.

- Stage I - Reflexes (birth to one month)

The baby is aware only of himself (egocentric). He does not realize he is a distinct person, separate from the rest of the world, separate from his parents, separate from his siblings and separate from his toys. His body movements are uncoordinated. Innate reflexes such as sucking movements to the stimulus of a nipple become more efficient.

- Stage II - Primary Circular Reactions (one to four months)

The infant forms new response patterns through a combination of his earlier reflexive actions. For example, his fist finds its way to his mouth.

- Stage III - Secondary Circular Reaction (four to eight months)

The baby continues to form new response patterns and repeats them intentionally. For example, he may shake a rattle and when it makes a noise, he will shake it again.

- Stage IV - Coordination of Secondary Reactions (eight to twelve months)

In this stage the coordination of movements and perceptions becomes much more complex and the child begins to solve simple problems. The baby begins to understand that his actions lead to specific results. For instance, when he sees a toy he wants, he may push other obstacles away in order to reach it, or he may push his parent's hand toward it to reach it.

If someone hides an object from the baby, he acts as though it no longer exists. The child has not yet developed what Piaget refers to as "object permanence." In other words, the baby does not realize that an object still continues to exist after it has passed out of his sight. As he advances through this stage, he learns to follow the disappearing object with his eyes; that is, he will look for a ball that rolls under a couch. At the end of this stage, the baby learns that objects exist apart from his perception of them and that is why games such as "peek-a-boo" are so delightful to him.

- Stage V - Tertiary Circular Reactions (twelve to eighteen months)

At this stage, the baby experiments and varies his familiar behavior patterns. He varies his responses toward the same object or tries out new responses to obtain the same goal. For example, the child who has learned to knock down a pillow with his fist to get a toy may then attempt to knock it down with his feet or use a rattle to push it down.

During this stage the infant discovers (generally accidentally) some interesting and exciting event that he attempts to repeat and prolong so that he can continue to enjoy it; for instance, kicking a doll hanging above the crib simply to watch it swing.

- Stage VI - Invention of New Means Through Mental Combinations (eighteen months to two years)

The child starts to experiment physically as well as mentally. When a child wants to obtain some end and has no habitual, available means by which to reach it, he invents one. Piaget gives the following example to illustrate the activity at this stage.

Janet plays with a doll carriage whose handle comes to the height of her face. She rolls it over the carpet by pushing it. When she comes against a wall, she pulls it walking backwards. But as this position is not convenient for her, she pauses and without hesitation goes to the other side to push the carriage again. She therefore found the procedure in one attempt, apparently through analogy to other situations, but without training or chance.

Preoperational Period

This occurs from about two to seven years of age and is characterized by the child believing that objects have human characteristics. During the first two years, language development occurs and during the last three years the individual develops the ability to classify objects into groups.

During this period the child does not realize that there are other viewpoints besides his own; his thinking is self-centered. He does not understand the basic relationships between objects or events.

As was mentioned before, this period is recognized by the child believing that objects have human characteristics. For example, the child may say: "The house feels sad." or "The tree looks old." and the child actually believes that the house feels sad and that the tree looks old.

Piaget attributes the child's way of understanding during this period to two deficiencies in a child's thinking. One is reversibility; the other is egocentrism.

Reversibility

Reversibility is the ability to understand that a completed process can also be performed in the reverse order so that the materials used are returned to their initial state. For example, give a child some play dough. Ask the child to make two balls the same size. Then have the child watch you as you flatten one ball and make it look like a pancake. Now ask the child if the amount of play dough in the ball and in the pancake are the same. Most preschool children will say "no", and indicate that the pancake is larger. When a child answers "yes" and explains that nothing was added or subtracted when the shape changed from a ball to a pancake he has shown the ability to conserve. Conservation is the ability to understand that a thing is basically the same even if its shape has changed; that is, the pancake can be rolled back into the same ball of play dough. Until a child is able to do this, telling him that the ball and pancake have the same amount of play dough will not influence his thinking.

Egocentrism

Egocentrism is the inability to see a situation from another's point of view. The following experiment illustrates this. Have a child stand next to a table set with place-mats. Place a fork and spoon on the child's placemat. Then ask him to stay in place, but to reach across the table and put the fork and spoon on the placemat opposite his own. One will notice that the child arranges the eating

utensils as he would for himself. The child is thinking of situations only from his viewpoint. People working with children become frustrated with egocentrism. For example, in a story group children will sit right in front of each other to see the pictures. They do not mean to block other children's views; they just want to see and do not realize they are in the way. Children during this period only consider themselves. When children show reversibility and less egocentrism in thinking, they move into the next period - concrete-operational.

Concrete-Operational Period

This period lasts from about eight to eleven years of age and is characterized by the child becomes capable of approaching several types of mathematical operations. Also during this time, an individual begins to think abstractly about specific objects; he understands number and quantity but only when demonstrated with concrete materials. Prior to this period, children decide if things are equal by how they appear. For example, a five-year-old has two rows of marbles. Each row has the same number of marbles. However, one row is longer because the marbles are spread out. If you ask the child which row has the most marbles he will choose the row that is longer. A child in the concrete-operational period will recognize that the number of marbles in each row is equal. At this point, a child still does not reason about ideas and concepts.

Formal-Operational Period

This occurs from about twelve years and up and is the final stage in Piaget's development of thought. An individual has the mental operations for adult thinking and can reason about ideas and events which are in the past, present or future. Instead of having to think about concrete objects, he can think and reason in purely abstract terms. Also, the child can deal with a wide variety of problems and he tries to combine various possibilities in problem solving. He can experiment with cause of events because his thinking is more mobile and flexible.

The formal-operational child can understand abstract principles. For instance, if you asked a child what is wrong with this statement: "Tom's feet are so big that he has to put his shoes on before he puts his socks on." In an earlier period, the child may say that the statement is incorrect because no one can have such big feet. An individual in the formal-operational period reasons that it is wrong because it is not logical. Tom does not put his socks on over his shoes.

- Assimilation and Accommodation

According to Piaget, the development of thinking depends on a child's interactions with his environment. He describes the two processes by which people interact with their environment as assimilation and accommodation.

Assimilation is the way an individual takes in new experiences and relates them to his existing structure. It is a means of handling a new situation on the basis of past experiences.

Accommodation refers to ways an individual changes his existing structure to adapt to each new experience. Through accommodation we adapt to the ever changing environment.

Let us look at an example of assimilation and accommodation. John, an eighteen month-old boy, grabs and throws a plastic glass from his high chair after he has finished drinking his juice. At his grandmother's house he has a breakable glass. He throws it and it makes a loud noise and breaks. He frowns, looks puzzled and begins to cry. John demonstrates assimilation when he uses the same action with the new glass that he had learned with the other glass. Because the breakable glass did not produce the same results as the plastic one, he will have to change his ideas and actions. This change, Piaget refers to as accommodation. The next time John may at least hesitate before he throws the glass because he is aware that not all glasses are the same. Each time a child assimilates and then accommodates a new experience, he moves a step closer to the next stage in logical thought development.

ERIK ERIKSON (PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY)

Erik Erikson, an American development psychologist, feels that personality develops continuously throughout the life cycle and that cultural and social influences are most important in personality development. As the individual grows, he becomes more and more aware of his environment. Erikson recognizes the interaction between the individual and culture as contributing to personal growth. Although Erikson's theory is not the last word on personality development, it has strongly changed the way that adults think about and care for infants.

The psychosocial theory of Erikson divides the life cycle into eight stages and in each stage, the individual meets and must solve a problem. If the crisis is not solved, the individual is less able to solve crises at later stages. As people attempt to solve each major crisis, they learn ways of dealing with society. They also develop a

particular feeling or personality characteristic that is associated with each stage. After the satisfactory solution of each crisis, the person emerges with an increased sense of unity, good judgment and capacity to do well.

Let us investigate each stage more closely:

1. Infancy - Trust versus Mistrust
2. Early Childhood - Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt
3. Play Age - Initiative versus Guilt
4. School Age - Industry versus Inferiority
5. Adolescence - Identity versus Role Confusion
6. Young Adulthood - Intimacy versus Isolation
7. Adulthood - Generativity versus Self-absorption
8. Old Age - Integrity versus Disgust

Infancy (Trust versus Mistrust)

According to Erikson, the first stage involves the crisis of establishing a feeling of basic trust or mistrust. Erikson believes that the creation of basic trust (through consistent attention to the infant's needs - both physical and psychological) lays the foundation for later emotional growth. A baby that is trusting of others is happy and satisfied because he feels that his world is a safe place and he is able to develop a secure sense of his own value as a person. A mistreated and neglected baby feels frightened and insecure and he is more than likely going to have emotional or behavioral problems later on in life.

The information of basic trust requires that those people who take care of the baby be trustworthy and reliable. The baby must be able to expect consistent responses from those around him if he is to acquire a basic trust of the world. If an infant's parents treat him one way now, then another way at another time, he can form no reliable expectations about what will happen in response to anything he does and he will grow up with a basic mistrust of the world. Let us look more closely at a specific example. Mothers are sometimes separated from their infants. If an infant feels hungry and the mother returns to feed him, the infant is likely to develop a feeling of trust. If the mother is unpredictable or inattentive for example, she is late in returning or returns to feed the infant only some of the time, the infant may develop a feeling of mistrust, which can last throughout the rest of the individual's life. Problems of mistrust recur and have to be solved later, but when trust is dominant, healthy personality growth takes place.

Early Childhood (Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt)

A second crucial stage is the one in which the baby acquires either a sense of autonomy or a sense of shame and doubt. This stage predominates during the second and third year of life and the child faces the crisis of achieving individuality. They strive for control over muscular activities including control of the bladder.

He wants to do for himself. He tries his new motor skills of walking, climbing, manipulating and his mental powers of choosing and deciding. For example, John's parents let him choose what he eats and the amount. This makes John feel that he has some power to make decisions.

If John's parents give him plenty of suitable choices, then he grows in autonomy, a feeling of being self-governing. He gets the feeling that he can control his body, himself and his environment. The negative feelings of doubt and shame arise when his choices, are disastrous or when people shame him or force him to do things he does not want to do. For example, when John's appetite was fairly well satisfied, he wanted to try to feed himself. His grandmother, taking care of him while Mom was in the hospital, could not stand the messiness of it. John could not assert himself so that he could try out his ability to feed himself. If John does not gain this control over his behavior, he develops a feeling of shame and doubt.

Play Age (Initiative versus Guilt)

In the third stage, which occurs around the fourth and fifth years, the child initiates fantasy as well as motor and language activities. During this stage the child explores the physical world with his senses and the social and physical worlds with his questions, reasoning and imagination. A child faces the crisis of being attracted to the opposite sex, parent and love relationships with parents are very important. The crisis is solved as the child channels these feelings into socially acceptable behavior. The child learns initiative and develops a conscience. For example, Janet's Dad praised Janet's block building. When Janet seemed receptive, she would add an idea or help Dad to balance the blocks about ready to tumble.

School Age (Industry versus Inferiority)

The fourth stage covers the early school years - 6 to 11 years of age. The child acquires the ability to learn and to work hard. He is now ready to be a worker and a producer. That is, he wants to do jobs well instead of only starting and exploring them.

If the child feels he cannot adequately measure up to the standards held for him by his family and society, he may experience failure in school and may develop feelings of inferiority and inadequacy. For example, parents, who regularly see their child's efforts at making and doing things as simply "making a mess," help to encourage in the child a sense of inferiority. On the other hand, when parents frequently praise their child for his efforts, show interest in his projects and school work, they encourage in the child a sense of industry. A child's balance between inferiority and industry is affected by the school and home experiences.

Adolescence (Identity versus Role Confusion)

The fifth stage occurs during adolescence (12 to 18 years of age). At this time, the individual must solve the crisis "Who am I?" "Where am I going in life?" It is a crisis of identity. The individual looks to the peer group and to role models to develop a plan for the future.

In this stage the childhood identifications and new biological drives in new social roles have to be integrated. The training of childhood needs to be translated into the behavior of adulthood. The identity of the new adult role may become confused and a young person can be kept from attaining the maturity level needed for adulthood.

Young Adulthood (Intimacy versus Isolation)

The sixth stage is the crisis of intimacy which involves understanding and allowing oneself to be understood. Once a young adult determines his own roles and an awareness of himself, he moves toward sharing himself with others, or else he finds himself isolated from others and alone.

Adulthood (Generativity versus Self-absorption)

This stage occurs during adulthood and includes being a good parent and more. Generativity is the concern for people beyond the immediate family members. Lack of this concern can result in self-absorption or making personal needs one's primary concern. The adult may be interested in establishing and guiding policies to make life better for future generations.

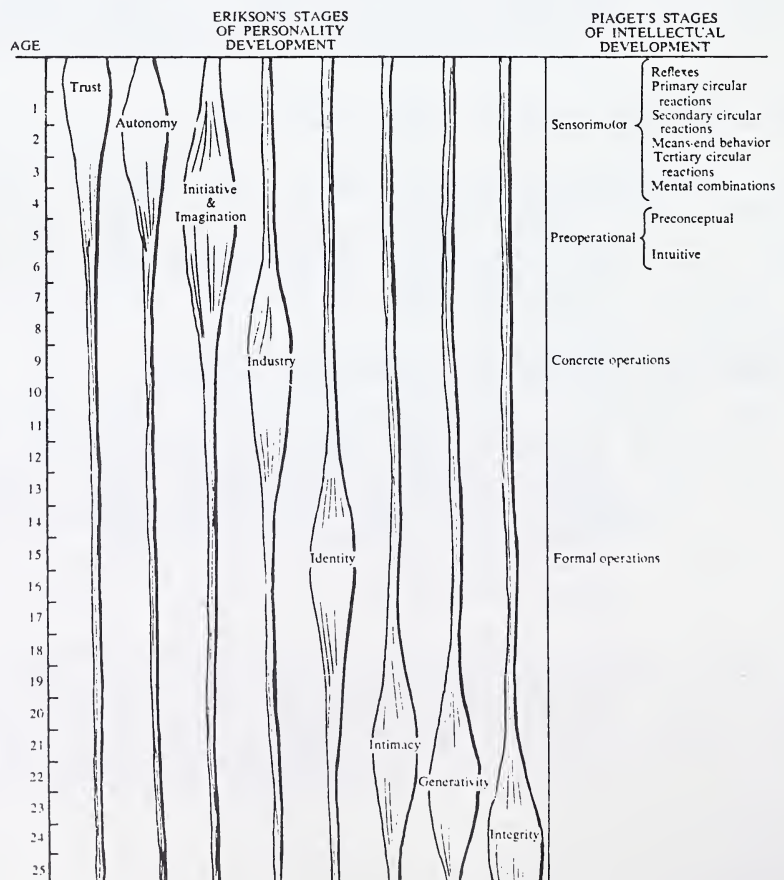
Individuals at this stage develop the feeling that they are productive — that they are accomplishing something worthwhile. If they do not develop this feeling, they may feel that they are not getting anywhere. Adults need to be needed by the young and unless the adults can be concerned and contributing, they suffer from stagnation.

Old Age (Integrity versus Disgust)

The final period is a result of having resolved all the earlier crises. When people reach this final stage, they develop a sense of integrity. Individuals feel that their actions, relationships and values are all meaningful and acceptable. They feel as if their life has been full and "together". If they fail to develop this feeling, then they may despair that their life has been unfulfilled and that it is too late to try again. For example, a person, who looks back upon his life as a series of missed opportunities, may feel displeased and disgusted. The person who feels content and satisfied with his life, on the other hand, feels a sense of integrity.

Erikson never meant that a person experiences either the feeling related to each crisis or its opposite at any stage. Each of us has probably felt some of both extremes as we grow. Rather, it is the degree to which we experience the various opposite feelings that influences our development at each stage.

Following is a schematic representation of Erikson's stages of psychosocial development and Piaget's stage of the development of intelligence.



ARNOLD GESELL (DEVELOPMENTAL MATURATIONAL THEORY)

Arnold Gesell, a psychologist and pediatrician (1880-1961), emphasized the maturation concept. He believed that all development occurred in definite patterns and internally controlled sequences. Gesell stressed recognizing and respecting each child's inborn individual differences. He applies this to all kinds of growth - ability, behavior, tissues, organs. To Gesell, environment and culture were secondary influences.

Gesell believed that the behavior of a child was patterned and to an extent predictable. To him a child's stages of development occur at different times depending upon the growth rate of the child. He describes different stages but does not designate when a child will enter them. Age levels are not set up as standards, but as very general guidelines. "The developmentalists urge recognition of each child's individuality but also believe that certain types of behavior will occur regardless of external intervention." Page 41 - *Parenting and Children* by Helen Westlake.

In most situations there is no need to measure a baby's intelligence. It is enough to know that the baby is growing, learning and developing normally. However, the need does arise when it is useful to be able to judge a baby's intelligence, for example, in a case where there is a suspicion that a child may be mentally retarded or when the parents who already have one retarded child wants reassurance that their second child is developing normally.

In babies, intelligence - the ability to learn and to use knowledge or to understand concepts and relationships - is very difficult to measure. Intelligence is just beginning to develop in babies. They cannot speak, and language is the primary tool by which a tester evaluates intelligence. Because the behavior of a baby is rather limited, it is difficult to observe it. Also, babies have to be motivated to participate in tests - "Why should he make a tower out of blocks (even though he is capable of doing it) unless he wants to?"

Gesell kept all these limitations in mind when he devised his Developmental Schedules, covering an age range from four weeks to six years, to determine infant intelligence. These schedules have been used throughout the world for assessing infant behavior and as starting points for developing other infant's tests.

Through repeated observations and tests, Gesell developed norms and standards of the development of behavior, especially in infancy. Gesell's test was the first specifically designed to measure mental ability in early infancy. It evaluates behavior in four basic areas - motor, adaptive, language and personal-social.

Let us look at each area of behavior more closely.

1. **Motor** - hold up head, sitting, creeping
2. **Adaptive** - eye-hand coordination, problem-solving ability (being able to put a round peg in a round hole)
3. **Language** - understanding others, babbling, facial expressions, gestures
4. **Personal-social** (scored mainly from a parental interview) - feeding himself, responding to others, etc.

Following are some selected items from Gesell's infant intelligence tests to give you an idea of what kinds of behaviors can be measured.

Key age: 28 weeks

- lifts head
- sits erect momentarily
- holds two cubes more than momentarily
- retains bell
- vocalizes m-m-m and polysyllabic vowel sounds
- takes solid food well
- brings feet to mouth
- pats mirror image.

Key age: 52 weeks

- walks with one hand held by someone
- tries to build tower of cubes
- dangles ring by string
- tries to insert pellet into bottle
- uses two words besides "mama" and "dada"
- gives toy on request
- cooperates in dressing.

In conclusion, Gesell viewed development as determined by nature from within the organism. Environment played a secondary role of modifying, not determining behavior. For him, the child should be allowed to develop at his own pace both at home and at school. Negativism and lack of productivity result when a child is forced or limited.

Gesell emphasized maturation and individuality while developing new methods of observing children and creating tests. He believed that each person is an individual from the beginning and that progress toward maturity is governed by an internal timetable.

EXERCISE 1: Multiple Choice

Select the best possible answer and place the appropriate letter in the space to the left of each question.

- _____ 1. This developmental psychologist believed that personality develops continuously through a person's life cycle.
- a. Gesell
 - b. Erikson
 - c. Piaget
 - d. Skinner
- _____ 2. The problem-solving ability in Gesell's Developmental Schedule fits into which of the following categories?
- a. Personal-social
 - b. Motor
 - c. Language
 - d. Adaptive
- _____ 3. This psychologist was mainly concerned with the reasons children gave for answers, rather than if the answers were right or wrong.
- a. Gesell
 - b. Erikson
 - c. Piaget
 - d. Maslow
- _____ 4. Piaget attributes the child's way of understanding during this **period** to two deficiencies in a child's thinking - reversibility and egocentrism.
- a. Sensorimotor
 - b. Preoperational
 - c. Concrete-operational
 - d. Formal-operational
- _____ 5. This psychologist views a child's mental development as evolving through four different stages with age ranges associated with them.
- a. Gesell
 - b. Erikson
 - c. Piaget
 - d. Rogers

- _____ 6. A child acquires the ability to learn and to work hard. He then feels he is ready to be a worker and producer. This best describes Erikson's trait of _____.
- a. inferiority
 - b. role confusion
 - c. industry
 - d. initiative
- _____ 7. According to this psychologist's theory, an individual meets and has to solve a problem in each of the eight stages of the life cycle.
- a. Gesell
 - b. Erikson
 - c. Piaget
 - d. Rogers
- _____ 8. During this stage of Erikson's personality development theory, the child faces the crisis of achieving individuality - he wants to do for himself.
- a. Early Childhood
 - b. Infancy
 - c. Play Age
 - d. School Age
- _____ 9. This psychologist believed that environment modified an individual's behavior, but did not determine it.
- a. Gesell
 - b. Erikson
 - c. Piaget
 - d. Watson
- _____ 10. The term that best describes the individual who determines his own roles and an awareness of himself and then moves toward sharing himself with others is
- a. isolation.
 - b. generativity.
 - c. self-absorption.
 - d. intimacy.

EXERCISE 2: Matching

Select from Column I the letter of the word which best matches the description in Column II.

Column I	Column II
A. Sensorimotor	_____ At this stage, the individual can think and reason in purely abstract terms.
B. Preoperational	_____ This kind of intelligence exists without language and symbols.
C. Concrete-operational	_____ _____ involves making personal needs one's primary concern and develops during the adulthood stage.
D. Formal-operational	_____ This period is characterized by the child attributing human characteristics to objects.
E. Assimilation	_____ Refers to the ways an individual changes his existing structure to adapt to each new experience.
F. Accommodation	_____ A child has acquired _____ when he gets the feeling that he can control his body, himself and his environment.
G. Adolescence	_____ During this period, the child believes an object continues to exist, even if he cannot see it.
H. School Age	_____ During this stage of personality development, the child must solve the crisis - "Who am I?"
I. Autonomy	_____ This period is recognized when the individual can think abstractly about specific objects.
J. Initiative	_____ A child handles a new situation on the basis of his past experiences.
K. Self-absorption	

EXERCISE 3: Definitions

Define the following terms as completely as possible. Give examples.

1. Piaget's "object permanence"

2. Piaget's theory of Conservation

3. Egocentrism

4. Erikson's "Integrity" in the Old Age Stage

EXERCISE 4: True and False

Carefully read each statement below and decide if it is true or false. If the statement is true, place a T on the short blank before the statement. If it is false, place an F on the short blank. Correct all false statements by changing only the highlighted portion.

- _____ 1. At the key age of *52 weeks*, an infant should be able to walk with one hand held by someone.

- _____ 2. Erikson believed that *cultural and social influences* are very important in personality development.

- _____ 3. According to Gesell, creeping is considered to be a *motor* skill.

- _____ 4. When children show reversibility and less egocentrism in thinking, they can move into the *formal-operational level*.

- _____ 5. *Gesell* placed great emphasis on a child's maturation and individuality.

- _____ 6. Piaget believed that a child's speed of *mental development* depends largely on a child's experiences both in the social and physical world.

- _____ 7. Gesell evaluates *behavior* in four basic areas - motor, adaptive, language and personal-social.

- _____ 8. Gesell believed that a child's behavior was *patterned* and to some extent *predictable*.

9. According to Erikson, *generativity* is the concern for people beyond the immediate family members.
-
10. *Gesell* believed that for a baby to acquire basic trust, he must have consistent responses from the caring people around him.

EXERCISE 5: Short Answer

What were three of the most important influences on your life? You can state both positive and negative experiences in the following chart. In the second column, indicate what effects these experiences have had.

Experiences	Effects
eg. In my English 10 class my teacher praised my essay.	I enjoy my English classes.

EXERCISE 6: Essay

In a short essay describe the differences between Erikson's theory and Piaget's theory. Be sure to observe the rules of spelling, sentence structure and paragraph construction in writing your essay. Give your essay a title.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

1621 Personal Living Skills 10
Module B
Revised 10/88

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ALBERTA CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL

MAILING INSTRUCTIONS FOR CORRESPONDENCE LESSONS

1. BEFORE MAILING YOUR LESSONS, PLEASE SEE THAT:

- (1) All pages are numbered and in order, and no paper clips or staples are used.
- (2) All exercises are completed. If not, explain why.
- (3) Your work has been re-read to ensure accuracy in spelling and lesson details.
- (4) The Lesson Record Form is filled out and the correct lesson label is attached.
- (5) This mailing sheet is placed on the lesson.

2. POSTAGE REGULATIONS

Do **not** enclose letters with lessons.

Send all letters in a separate envelope.

3. POSTAGE RATES

First Class

Take your lesson to the Post Office and have it weighed. Attach sufficient postage and a green first-class sticker to the front of the envelope, and seal the envelope. Correspondence lessons will travel faster if first-class postage is used.

Try to mail each lesson as soon as it has been completed.

When you register for correspondence courses, you are expected to send lessons for correction regularly. Avoid sending more than two or three lessons in one subject at the same time.

INFANCY

At birth each individual is totally helpless. As his process of learning, thinking and personality develop, he grows and matures. In the next three lessons, we will discuss some of the characteristic physical, social, emotional and intellectual changes that occur in each individual as he progresses from infancy (Lesson 2) through to the preschool years (Lesson 3), and then to the early school years (Lesson 4).

INFANCY AND TODDLERHOOD

During the first year of babyhood, the child is still considered a baby. For the first six to nine months, the baby's physical growth and development are still very rapid. During the second year, the baby's physical growth and development slow down while mental growth and development progress rapidly. At this time, the baby is a toddler.

In the first few years of life, a child is engaged in many learning activities. He can be thought of as a continuously developing biological organism as he experiences very rapid physical, social, emotional and intellectual growth. During the infancy period, the baby begins to explore, manipulate and master his environment.

In going through these growth periods, we must remember that children are individuals, and each infant develops at his own unique growth pattern. "Developmental norms" are useful guides in telling us something, and they should not be taken too literally. The infant may move from one stage to another very rapidly but then remain longer at the next stage.

INFANCY - PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Physical development is the growth of an individual's body. At birth, an infant can cry, sulk, eliminate and move his arms, legs and head in uncoordinated ways. The baby needs much sleep - 20 hours per day, needs to be fed when hungry and needs his mother's loving care.

Newborns have red, wrinkled faces, elongated lumpy heads with smoky-colored eyes which are usually the most prominent feature. The amount of hair varies on each infant and is temporary. It can be an abundant or scanty amount covering the head and parts of the body, especially the back. When the permanent hair begins to grow, it is often a different color from the temporary one.

The height and weight development are the most noticeable examples of an infant's physical growth. The size of babies at birth varies according to race, social-economic status and age of the mother. The average birth weight of newborns is 3.6 kg (7 to 8 pounds) and they measure about 50 cm (20 inches) long. The range is from 1.4 to 7.3 kg (3 to 16 pounds) and from 42 to 55 cm (17 to 22 inches).

In four or five months, the infant's weight is doubled and in a year, it is tripled. His height doubles at about two years of age.

Growth is never smooth and even and babies follow a pattern of growth. There are, however, differences in the rate of growth for different babies. When the baby is increasing in weight, height growth may be small. When the internal organs like the kidney and heart increase in size, outside features stay pretty much unchanged.

The growth pattern for boys differs slightly from that for girls. The average newborn male baby is slightly heavier and larger than the female. Boy babies lose more weight after birth than girls. But boys tend to gain a little more in height and weight than girls.

Weight gain comes mostly from an increase in fat tissue. This is due to the large amount of fat in milk, the baby's main diet. When foods other than milk become part of the infant's diet, the weight increase comes more from bone and muscle tissue.

The Baby's Senses

Although the sense organs are all present at birth, they are not well developed nor are they functioning properly. However, they develop quickly after birth. Because a baby's sense organs are different from those of an adult, he experiences different sensory sensations than an adult.

Let us look more closely at the sensory experiences of babies.

- Taste

In an infant and adult as well, the taste buds are located on the surface of the tongue. The infant is very sensitive to all tastes because the taste buds line the insides of the cheeks. Young babies prefer sweet and will spit out, frown, or make faces when given liquids that have high concentrations of bitter, sour, or salt.

- Smell

An infant has as many "smell" cells inside his nostrils as an adult; however, he does not have the hair which lines the inside of an adult's nose. Consequently, odour can get to the smell cells easily and an infant has a very keen sense of smell.

- Hearing

Several days after birth, the liquid from the prenatal sac drains out of the middle ear and the infant's hearing becomes very clear.

- Vision

Although the infant's eyes are well developed at birth, the muscles attaching the eyes to the sockets are weak. Two or three months after birth, these muscles strengthen and things become clearer. Even though he can probably see colors when only a few weeks old, babies seem to be attracted to them, but they still have to learn about them.

- Skin Sensations

Although an infant's skin has the same number of sense organs for temperature, pain and touch as an adult, his skin is thinner. For this reason, an infant feels temperature, pain and touch more keenly than an adult.

All babies and young children become curious about the things they can touch, see and hear. It is however, important that they do not be exposed to dangerous objects like knives, matches, scissors. They also should have simple and harmless toys to play with.

Pattern of Development

At birth, babies are top-heavy. Throughout babyhood, their heads keep on growing, but at a slower rate than the rest of their bodies.

The trunk and limbs which are the least developed at birth, develop fast during babyhood. The trunk becomes longer and the shoulders broader; the stomach flattens.

- Bones

An infant's bones are soft. As the infant grows, the bones harden very slowly. This process of bone hardening is called ossification and ends when the child reaches eleven or twelve years of age.

- Teeth

Each person normally has two sets of teeth - temporary and permanent. There are twenty baby teeth and thirty-two permanent teeth. The temporary teeth are usually soft, small, with small shallow roots.

Teeth start to develop in the baby's jaw during the third and fourth month of prenatal life. When the baby is five to six months old, they start to appear. They usually come in at a rate of about one tooth per month until the baby is two or two and one half years old. This is known as teething.

- Nervous System

Until birth, the nervous system is far from fully developed and this partially explains the infant's helplessness. After birth, the nervous system develops very rapidly. This enables babies to begin to control their muscles and to learn, resulting in the baby becoming more independent.

Motor Development-Body Control

Motor development takes place very rapidly after birth. Body control follows the laws of developmental direction; that is, growth occurs from head to foot and from trunk to arms and legs.

Knowing about body control is important for several reasons. It warns people caring for the baby, whether they are parents or babysitters, that it is time for safety measures. For example, before a baby can roll, it is safe to change him on a bed. But when he can roll, more care must be taken. Secondly, understanding when to expect different areas of body control enables the people around the baby to greater understand his readiness to learn skills. For example, since hands and arms come under control earlier than the legs and feet, it means that the baby can learn hand skills before he can leg skills.

- Head Control

At one month of age, the baby can follow objects with his eyes for a short distance. By the third month, the baby is capable of performing fairly complex eye movements, for example, remaining focused on a moving object as it goes across his field of vision. At two months, he raises his head when lying on his stomach. Between three and four months, the baby can coordinate his eyes on the same object in any direction that the object moves. Also he controls his lip muscles to spit, smile and form simple sounds. By five months, he raises his head when lying on his back and he holds his head up when sitting with support. He holds his head up when sitting without support between six and eight months.

- Trunk Control

By two months, the baby turns from his side to his back and at four months, he turns from his back to his side. At six months of age, he turns his body completely around and he pulls his body to a sitting position with some assistance. He sits unsupported for several minutes when he has full control over his trunk and this occurs at the seventh or eighth month of age.

- Arm and Hand Control

Physical development proceeds from the body's center to the arms and hands. At three months, the baby is capable of bringing his hands together in front of his body. Also he can make some general response to an object; for example, he grasps a rattle placed in his fingers. He can see the rattle before he has the coordination to reach it. Between four and five months, he reaches for and grasps at stationary objects and he accepts one object placed in his hand. Between five and six months, he reaches for and grasps any object that dangles. By six months of age, he can pass a toy from one hand to the other one and between six and seven months, he can carry objects to his mouth. At seven months, he accepts two objects when handed to him. Between eight and nine months, he has developed the thumb-finger coordination to pick up objects. By ten months, he can accept three objects handed to him. Between twelve and fifteen months, he is capable of scribbling with a pencil or crayon, "So beware of the walls, Mom."

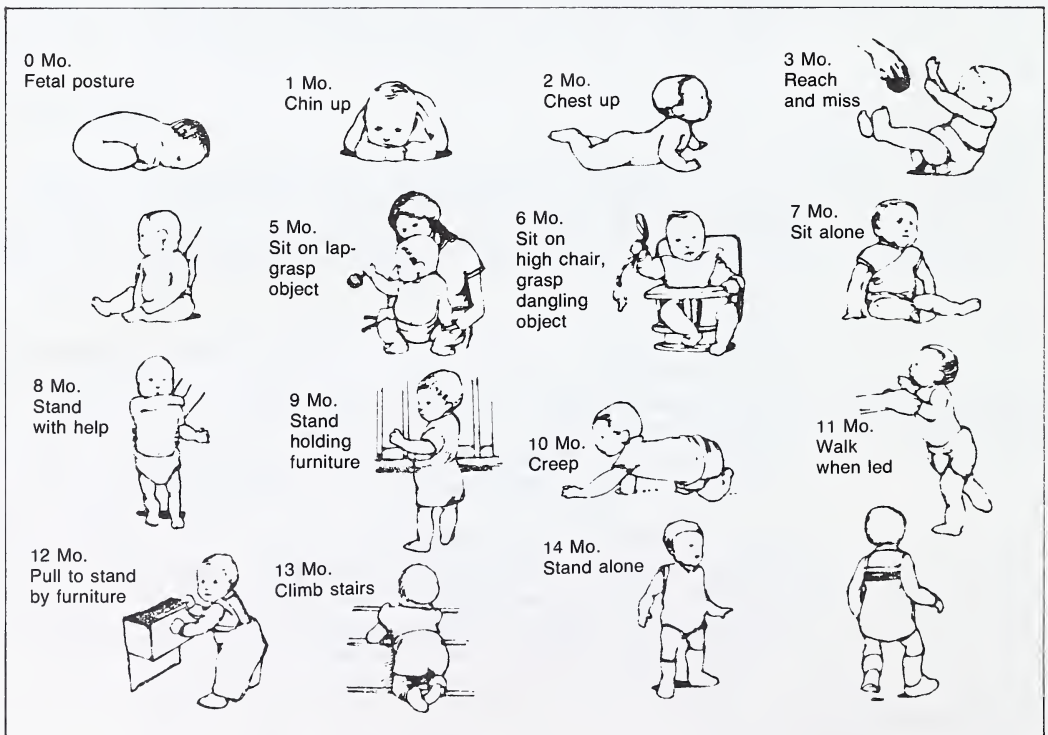
- Leg Control

Most babies are physically ready to walk between nine and fifteen months. They generally progress through a crawling, creeping and standing-alone stage before actually walking. Usually a baby walks within one month after he reaches the standing alone stage.

At seven months, the baby crawls and at nine months he creeps — pushes his body forward on his hands and knees. By ten months, he can stand with support and at twelve months, he can stand without support and he can walk with support. By fourteen months, he can walk without support. At eighteen months of age, the baby walks like an adult with his knees bent and he climbs steps on his hands and knees.

When a baby can crawl and climb he is able to do many more things and he can explore more objects. He may pull books, magazines, plants, etc. Parents should understand that the baby at this stage of development is not "bad", but he is simply trying to find out what all these interesting things are. There are no significant differences between the development of motor skills in males and females in the early years. Differences begin to appear at about five years of age and these will be discussed in Lesson 3.

The sequence of motor development for the first two years of life is shown in the diagram below.

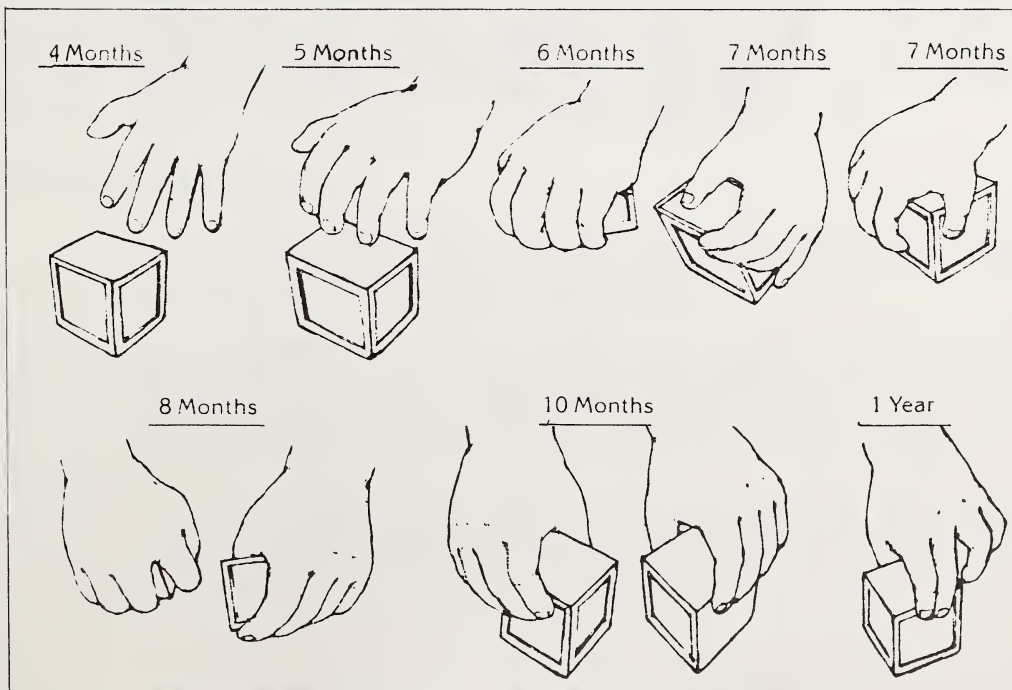


An infant usually makes his first attempt at reaching object around the age of four months. Before grasping an object, he makes a visual contact with it and approaches it with his hands. His first reaching movements are awkward. His arms are active and his entire body strains as he reaches. A baby's reaching movement from four to six months consists of three stages:

1. raising his hand
2. thrusting it forward
3. lowering it.

At seven months, he raises his hands rather high when reaching for an object. By ten months, there is no trace of the three stages. This reach is now graceful and accurate.

An infant's first attempt to grasp an object is just as awkward as his first attempt to reach one. At six months, an infant cannot gracefully and accurately pick up an object using his thumb and forefinger. By seven months, he begins to lose his paw-like grasp and may use his other hand to help him in grasping the object. At ten months of age, he can grasp small objects with his thumb and forefinger and his grasp is more precise and refined. At about fifteen months of age, the grasp is similar to that of an adult. The two hands are now working independently of each other and they work much more smoothly toward one goal. Gradually, one hand becomes the preferred hand and is used as the leader in manipulation. Following is a brief pictorial diagram summarizing an infant's grasping technique.



When a child begins to throw things out of his playpen, his development is progressing normally. Often parents do not value this stage for many times we hear parents complain about having to pick up the child's toys and threatening to take the toys away from the child. Parents can retard future development by expressing annoyance with the child's accomplishments. A child will always notice a parent's attitude, whether it is encouraging or discouraging.

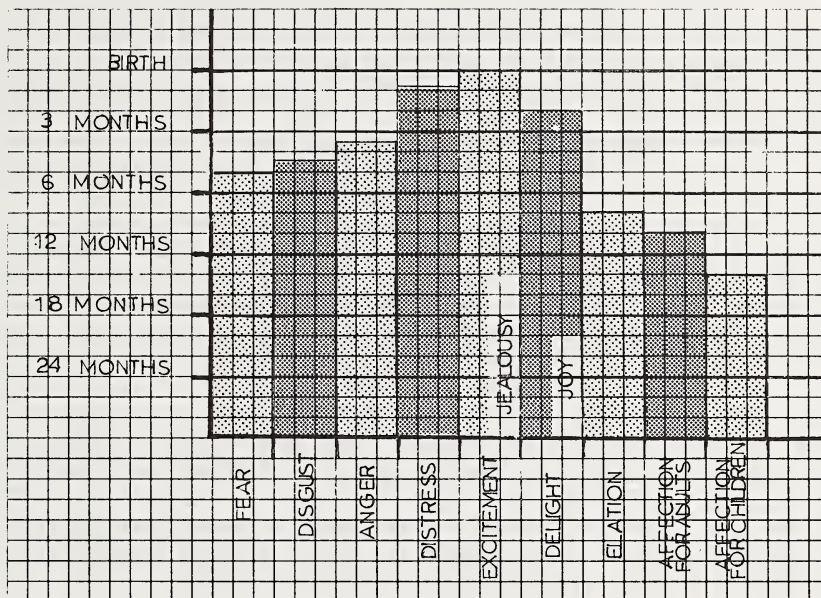
EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotional development is an individual's awareness and expression of an emotional experience which might be pleasurable or not pleasurable, mild or intense. No specific emotions can be determined in a newborn. There is only a general state of excitement. The emotions of distress and delight show up in infants shortly after birth (three months). Distress, which appears a little earlier than delight, is characterized by muscular tension and crying. Delight is exemplified by muscular relaxation and smiling. By six months of age the infant has acquired the emotions of fear, disgust and anger. At the end of the first year, elation (high spirits) and affection are recognizable.

Young infants seem to have no fear until they reach the stage where they can recognize possible dangers. Young children, however, fear such things as strange people, unfamiliar animals and objects and the dark. Young children show more fear than they did as babies because an infant has no understanding of danger. Also an older child can more easily separate the real from the unreal.

Older children begin to develop fears involving social situations. Also they fear things which they cannot understand at the time, for example, things like thunder, lightning, death.

The following chart shows at approximately what age certain emotions are thought to appear.



SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Social development is learning to act and live in a culture or society as a member of that society. At two months of age, the baby will cry when an adult leaves and smile when the person returns. Children under the age of one year will pay attention to the presence of another child. Yet they usually do not interact with two children at the same time until about thirty months of age.

How Does Personality Develop

Every person has a personality — the unique organization of an individual's characteristics of adjustment that sets him apart from other individuals.

Self-concept is the center of personality and includes everything that the person believes about himself and it involves what you assume other people think of you. The development of the ego occurs during the first few years of life when the child reaches the "I, me, mine" stage.

An individual's self-concept governs to a certain extent how he behaves. The tendency is to do things that agree with, support, or reinforce the ego.

The ego is formed by learning either from others or from personal experiences. Naturally, the parents are the first and most important factor in the development of a child's ego. If parents consistently tell their child: "You are a failure," they are very likely to convince him that that is true. The child feels that he cannot do anything well. This attitude becomes part of his self-concept.

Self-concept is learned not only from our parents, but from all those people the child is in contact with; for example, teachers, peer groups, siblings, relatives. Anything or anyone that disagrees with the child's self-concept will cause the child to defend his ego. If someone told a child he was stupid, when in fact he believed he was smart, his self-concept would be disturbed and he would probably want to contradict the person.

Erik Erikson proposed a very interesting psychosocial theory. He believed that personality develops continuously throughout life and that culture and environment (society) are strong influencing factors on a personality development. You will recall that in Lesson 1, Erikson's theory of personality development was dealt with very extensively. You may like to refer back to this lesson.

Intellectual Development

Intellectual development is the development of an individual's mental abilities. Jean Piaget, whom we studied thoroughly in Lesson 1 of this module, conducted extensive research on the development of intelligence, reasoning and thinking. He described six substages of sensorimotor intelligence representing cognitive development from birth to about two years. The sensorimotor child understands the world in terms of his actions in it. The stage ends when the child has achieved representative thought, language and a concept of the permanence of objects. You may like to refresh your memory of Piaget's sensorimotor stage and refer back to Lesson 1.

Learning to Communicate

Although the words "communication" and "speech" are often used to mean the same thing, they have a somewhat different meaning. Communication is the interchange of feelings, thoughts and emotions whereas speech is the expression of feelings, thoughts and emotions.

The first job in communication is understanding someone's messages. Babies have to learn how to understand what is being communicated to them by others. This is done through facial expressions, touch, gestures, or words.

Babies and young children learn to understand more words than they can say and so their comprehension vocabulary is larger than their speech vocabulary.

Initially, the words a baby hears are meaningless to him. Eventually he gets some idea of what is being said by watching the speaker's face. For example, a smile means approval and an angry look signifies disapproval. By three months, a baby begins to understand the meaning of expressions and gestures.

By six months old, most babies can recognize their own names. By one and one half years, a baby can understand the meaning of simple questions like "Are you hungry?" "Are you sleepy?" By the end of babyhood (two years of age), the toddler can understand simple commands such as "Come to supper," or "Give me the ball."

Since learning the meaning of words is a long and slow process, most of the communications made to a baby must be done at first through facial expressions, touch and gestures. Expressions should be accompanied by words. Then the baby begins to relate the words with the experiences. Following are some suggestions to help a baby or toddler understand what others are saying.

1. To get the baby's attention when speaking to him, use a facial expression or gesture. If the baby does not look at you, the relationship between your words and gestures or expressions will more than likely be lost.
2. Keep your form of communication very simple, but meaningful. Try to speak very clearly. Words of approval and pleasure can be strengthened by a smile or hug.
3. Repeat words the baby understands for repeating strengthens learning.
4. When using new words, make sure you connect meanings with them. For example, point to the objects the words stand for until you are sure the baby understands.
5. Talk to the baby a lot. The more speech he hears, the more chance he has of learning.

Learning to Speak

Because speech is a complicated skill, little is learned during babyhood. However, during this time, the basics are mastered and the baby will make considerable progress during the early years of childhood. To learn skills,

certain essentials are needed and these are also required when learning the communication skills — readiness to learn, a good model to imitate, a strong desire to learn, help in imitating the model and supervision. These essentials are discussed in more detail later on in this lesson when we dwell on learning skills.

- Pronouncing Words

Pronouncing words is learned through imitation. The more practice a baby has at making babbling sounds, the easier it is for him to imitate words. Learning to pronounce words is always a difficult task for babies. Although he hears the model correctly, he cannot always control his tongue and lip muscles enough to say the word just as he heard it.

Newborn infants make a variety of sounds. As the infant grows older, he produces a sound that is interpreted by his parents as similar to the one the parents so wish to hear, such as "mama", or "daddy". The parents usually immediately reinforce the sound and that increases the probability that it will occur again.

To make learning easier, the first words should be short, easy words that are made up of the sounds already mastered in babbling. The baby who can make the sound "mi-mi-mi" will learn to pronounce "milk" more easily than if the babbling had not included these sounds. Similarly, the baby who can babble — "da-da-da" will have no difficulty in saying "Daddy".

Errors are always involved in the process of learning to pronounce words. These errors should not be overlooked by the parents and should never be encouraged because they are "cute." Baby talk is an excellent example of this. Basically baby talk are words that are said wrong. Some parents think baby talk is cute and they encourage their baby to keep on using baby talk by copying the baby's incorrect pronunciation.

Baby talk is detrimental for two reasons. Firstly, it is harder to learn the correct pronunciations and the mispronounced words must be relearned. Secondly, baby talk may be cute when babies are young, but when they get old enough to play with children (usually by age two), his playmates may not understand what he is trying to say. Sometimes too, playmates will make fun of a child who talks like a baby.

- Building a Vocabulary

Vocabulary is all the words a child learns. Nouns, particularly the names for people and things the baby always sees and uses, are the most useful words. Nouns

are learned early. Action verbs like "give", "come", "bring" are also important. Because gestures are often used rather than verbs, the baby's vocabulary usually has a smaller number of verbs than of nouns.

A baby uses adjectives to talk about likes and dislikes. These words are usually limited to "nice", "pretty", "good", and "bad". Adverbs, prepositions and pronouns are the least useful part of a baby's vocabulary.

Most babies utter their first words by about one year of age. From fifteen to eighteen months, the child uses a vocabulary of about two dozen words. From eighteen to twenty-four months, a child begins to use simple two-word sentences, for example, "Mommy eat." By two years of age most children have a vocabulary of about 275 words and by three years of age, their vocabulary has increased to nearly 1,000 words.

- Connecting Meanings With Words

Words have no value to a baby until he has learned to connect meanings to them. A baby learns to associate meanings with words by trial and error or by guidance. If he learns by trial and error, he may connect a wrong or inaccurate meaning to words. For example, a baby may connect "Daddy" with men in general and call all men "Daddy". With guidance, a baby will soon learn the difference.

- Putting Together Sentences

Putting words into sentences that are meaningful to the listener is the most difficult task in learning to speak. If the baby's vocabulary consists mainly of nouns and verbs, the baby is not ready to speak in sentences.

In the late babyhood stage, a baby speaks in incomplete sentences that have three to five words which are mainly nouns, verbs and adjectives. It is unusual for a baby to say a complete sentence. This usually does not occur until the toddler is three years of age.

Infancy Skills

A skill is a series of movements that has been learned through practice. To develop a skill, the nerves and muscles must be coordinated and work together. A skill becomes a habit when it is well learned and the person does not have to think about it.

Babies are not born with skills since they must learn them. Learning occurs one of several ways; one is trial and error, which is the least efficient way to learn. If a baby tries one thing and it does not work, he tries another. By chance, the baby comes upon an act that works well for him. For example, a baby may hold a spoon in one way and try to bring the food to his mouth. If the baby can manage to get enough food in his mouth this way, he will repeat the act over and over again until it develops into a habit. If, on the other hand, more food is being spilled than is entering the baby's mouth, the baby may try grasping the spoon in a different way.

The most efficient way to learn is by training – not training in the sense of classroom instruction, but in a natural, relaxed way. Training must be a cooperative effort between the baby and the trainer. To learn skills by way of training requires nine essentials – some supplied by the learner and some by the trainer. They are as follows:

1. Readiness to Learn – The baby must have a real interest in the activity and it is shown when the baby's efforts bring improvement.
2. A Strong Desire to Learn – With this, the baby puts forth the effort needed for learning.
3. Encouragement – When learning becomes hard and the interest begins to decrease, the baby's desire to learn must be encouraged.
4. Chances to Practice – To learn a skill, it must be repeated until the muscles and nerves are trained to work together. Practice strengthens these coordinated movements.
5. A Good Model – Practice makes perfect only when the practice is copying a good model.
6. Practise until the Skill is Well Learned – The length of time spent on practising depends on how hard the skill is. If the skill can be done without thinking, it has probably been practised enough.
7. Guidance in Copying the Model – Until a baby can get the "feel" of the right movements, he needs someone to guide his movements and to help him copy a model.
8. Supervision of Practice – Supervision is very important during the early stages of learning to ensure that the learner, who is repeating movements is not also repeating mistakes.

9. Few Distractions - A learner must give undue attention to what he is doing in the early stages of learning a skill. Distractions slow down learning and lead to errors. The more difficult the skill, the more harmful any distractions will be.

Important Skills in Babyhood

Some skills like taking care of physical needs - self-feeding, dressing, bathing, cleaning teeth, combing hair, and learning to amuse oneself by playing with toys, are important to a baby because they lessen the baby's helplessness, dependence and frustrations.

- Eating Skills

In the first four and five months of life, the baby sucks his food into his mouth and swallows it without chewing. That is why the food must be liquid.

Since babies do not know exactly how to go about chewing, they may spit, hold the food in their mouth, or chew only with their front teeth. After a while, however, they learn to use their gums and tongue as well as their few teeth to mash the food. This is a messy period and parents must be patient.

- Self-feeding Skills

A baby's readiness to feed himself is indicated by the way he tries to hold his bottle and by the way he carries the spoon to his mouth, even if there is no food on the spoon. Self-feeding skills are developed between the ages of six and eighteen months during which time babies have a strong desire to learn to feed themselves.

Since self-feeding skills are difficult skills to acquire, it is helpful if certain conditions are met. For example, because a baby's attention wanders easily, he should eat his meals in a quiet place when only a parent helping to guide his learning. If the meal is eaten in the presence of others, it is a good idea to start the baby's meal ten to fifteen minutes earlier than the rest of the people.

Secondly it is much easier to learn eating skills when the utensils are suited to the baby's strength. That is, have the baby eat with small utensils made of stainless steel or plastic. If they are exactly like the adult utensils, but smaller, the baby can learn the right way from the start. If the utensils have curved handles, the baby has to relearn the skills later on.

- Self-Dressing Skills

Between eighteen months and two and one half years is the most important time for learning self-dressing skills and babies are very eager to learn to dress at this time.

At around one year of age, a baby starts to pull off his clothes. By two years of age, he can take off all his clothes, including his diapers. The dressing skills are acquired between the ages of one and one half and two years. The baby tries to put on his shirt, sweaters, socks, shoes, but often gets tangled up. Note that the undressing skills come before the dressing skills because it is easier.

Between one and one and a half years, the baby fumbles with buttons and zippers (fastening skills). By two years, he can pull down zippers and push buttons through their holes.

Self-dressing skills are made easier in three ways. First, the baby while learning should have few distractions. Second, the clothes should be simple, keeping self-dressing in mind. For example, parents should choose clothes with zippers instead of buttons or snaps and clothes that open down the front instead of down the back or side. Third, the parent can help with the dressing by doing the hard part, for example, getting the arms into the snowsuit.

- Self-bathing Skills

The self-bathing skills are easier to master than the self-feeding and self-dressing. Between six months and one year, the baby splashes in the water, grasps the bathing equipment, sucks the sponge and soap and plays with toys. Between one and one and a half years, he runs the washcloth or sponge over his face and center of his body, and between one and a half and two years, he washes his face and front of the body, rinses off the soap, tries to wash his hair, toes and ears, but needs help with his neck and back. He dries himself in the front fairly well, but needs help with the back.

- Self-grooming Skills

Babies are fascinated by the feel of a comb and hairbrush and want to try them. Before their first birthday, they try to comb and brush their hair. During their second year, they end up messing their hair rather than combing or brushing it because of the reversed image in the mirror.

Most babies are enthusiastic about brushing their teeth. They first suck the toothpaste from the brush and chew on the bristles. By two and a half years of age, they become interested in the actual cleaning of their

teeth. The front teeth receive great treatment, but not the back teeth. It is not until six years that children are expected to care for their teeth without adult help.

- Social-Help Skills

Social-help skills are used when one person helps another. Most parents feel that a child gets in their way and therefore do not teach the child social-help skills. Instead of encouraging the child to learn, the parents send the child off to play while they do the work alone.

If a child enjoys helping around the house, he will be eager to learn the skills needed to be of real help when he grows older. There are some simple skills a child can learn - hand a parent a brush when it is hair brushing time, pick up his clothes after having a bath, carry dirty clothes to the hamper.

Skills Involving the Organs of Elimination

To have control of the organs of elimination, the child's controlling muscles must be both strong and well coordinated. The skills required to control these organs are not yet mastered when babyhood ends. Control of them is well advanced by the time the child is two years of age. Learning these skills is a long and hard process. A baby who is ready to learn must be given the chance to learn; that is, the parent must take the baby to a toilet at the times when urination or bowel movement usually takes place. He needs to be shown how to use a toilet.

There are four aids that can speed up the learning skills needed to control the bowel and bladder. First, the baby should not be distracted. Many parents give the baby a toy to play with while sitting on the toilet seat. The baby does not concentrate on his reason for being there. Second, the equipment used for training should be suitable for the baby's size and stage of development. It is a frightening experience for a baby to be placed on an adult-size toilet seat with his feet dangling in the air. A low toilet chair with a potty under it is less frightening because the feet can be placed on the floor. Third, when a baby becomes upset, his muscles that control elimination become tense which is not ideal for learning the skill. If a baby is scolded or punished while on the toilet for not doing what is expected, he suffers from emotional stress which makes the learning of these skills impossible. Fourth, the parents must realize that this learning process is long with many setbacks and period of no progress. This leaves the parents with a relaxed attitude which is then transferred to the child and with a relaxed atmosphere, the learning process becomes easier.

Toilet training is not like training an animal to do a trick; but is like any other change in behavior that comes with greater maturity. One grows into it normally and naturally, with some help of course, and training consists of help, guidance and encouragement.

Typical Day of a Five-Month-Old Baby

John is five months old and weighs about 6.8 kilograms (15 pounds). He has an older sister, age three. A typical day in John's life is as follows:

John wakes up between six and eight A.M. from an all night sleep lasting ten to twelve hours. His parents describe him as a "good baby," meaning that he does not fuss or cry much and that he seems happy and interested in the world about him. After he awakens, he may play in his bed for fifteen or twenty minutes before he gets hungry enough to cry. He will usually be picked up about ten or fifteen minutes later after he awakens and will be changed and powdered. John is bottle fed, so while he is being changed his bottle of milk will be warming up for him.

It may take him anywhere from fifteen to fifty minutes to drink his six or seven ounces of milk. If he is very hungry, it goes down quickly. If not, he may dawdle over it, choosing to laugh and giggle and respond to others around him as he drinks leisurely. His older sister, Janet, will probably have something to say to him; she may bring him a toy or entertain him in some way. John will be held while eating. This adds to his comfort, provides closeness to others and makes the mealtime a more enjoyable event for the family.

After eating, John will play alone in his playpen for thirty to sixty minutes. He will lie there, giggling, cooing and grunting. At this age, he may try several times to roll over from his back to his stomach, but unsuccessfully, even though it is possible for children to roll over from a stomach to back by this age. He will reach for toys in the playpen, but since his coordination is poor, he will miss them often. He will wave his rattle, finger his stuffed animals, and be generally active all the time he is awake.

John will begin to fuss a little when he is tired, indicating to his mother that he is ready to go to sleep again. If he prefers to

sleep on his stomach (as most babies do) and if he cannot yet roll over by himself, he will need to be taken care of in this respect. He will also need to be changed again before going to sleep. The morning nap may last from thirty to forty minutes to over an hour. When he awakens again, probably sometime between nine-thirty and ten-thirty A.M., he will have his morning bath, usually a daily routine, and he will probably enjoy it very much. By the age of five months, John is able to kick and splash in the water. He will also enjoy playing with his bath toys his mother places in the water for him. The bath water will have to be the right temperature because of the temperature sensitivity of babies. John's mother will have tested the temperature of the bath water by placing her elbow into the water to be sure it will feel comfortable for John. Care will be taken not to get soap in his eyes. The rubdown after the bath is something that John enjoys. Next, John has his morning cereal or vegetable. There are solid foods which are spoon-fed to him.

Naturally, John will get his face quite messy while eating and he will try to handle the spoon himself. He will show interest in objects or people in the room. He enjoys the eating period, but when he has had enough he will show this by keeping his mouth closed or turning his head away.

After this eating period he will again play for a while. Afterward, he may nap until noon-time, or he may lie and play for the rest of the morning. If the weather is warm and agreeable, he will be put outside to play or sleep in his carriage or playpen. If he is in a position where he can see things well, he will watch the leaves and branches move in the breeze, follow the activities of children or animals in the neighborhood, or just amuse himself until he is sleepy.

At noon, he will have another meal and he will behave similarly to what he did during the earlier feeding. After this meal, he may stay awake for an hour or two, or he may nap again, until three or four P.M. In the late afternoon, John will usually want to "socialize". At this age he is likely to express great interest in other people, often crying when his mother leaves the room. He needs human contact. He should have friendly, interested, and affection-

ate contact with other people. Often when he awakens at three or four P.M. he will be hungry and will have to be given a bottle to tide him over until supper. He may not eat much at this time, but he will usually need some milk.

At suppertime John will get cereal and a fruit or vegetable. He usually gets whatever he did not get (fruit or vegetable) earlier in the day. He might not take milk again at supper, but will need some around seven P.M. before going to sleep for the night. This eating period is often followed by a period of social activities with the people around him. His father is usually home at this time and a play period with his father is much appreciated. During very warm weather, John may get a late bath in the afternoon or early evening. Powder after the bath helps him to feel comfortable and helps in protecting him against heat rash.

John may get a stroller ride at some time during the day. He may be taken visiting in the neighborhood or shopping with his mother. It is better if these trips can come when John is awake and alert, not when he's tired and fussy. If he is forced to stay awake due to his mother's activities, John does not enjoy this diversion and he makes the trip or activity unpleasant for his mother as well.

There are naturally many variations on this "typical day". Every baby will not go through this routine in exactly the same way; however, the general course of activities will be approximately the same.

EXERCISE 1: Multiple Choice

Select the best possible answer and place the appropriate letter in the space to the left of each question.

- _____ 1. Janet is three months old. Her motor development is normal for her age. One can expect that Janet will
- a. coordinate her eyes on the same object in any direction that the object moves.
 - b. chew on objects to relieve the discomfort of teething.
 - c. discover her toes and fingers.
 - d. bring her hands or objects to her mouth at will.
- _____ 2. John is six months old. His motor development is normal for his age. One can expect that John will
- a. scribble with a pencil.
 - b. grasp small objects with his thumb and forefinger.
 - c. pass a toy from one hand to the other.
 - d. walk alone.
- _____ 3. Jim is twelve months old. One can expect that Jim will
- a. climb stairs or chairs.
 - b. walk with help.
 - c. try to stand on one foot.
 - d. lower himself from a standing to a sitting position.
 - e. wave good bye.
- _____ 4. A person's _____ is the unique organization of his characteristics of adjustment that sets him apart from other individuals.
- a. self-concept
 - b. ego
 - c. social development
 - d. emotional development
 - e. personality
- _____ 5. This type of development involves learning to act and live in a culture or society as a member of it.
- a. intellectual development
 - b. emotional development
 - c. physical development
 - d. social development
 - e. personality development

EXERCISE 2: Definitions

Define the following terms as completely as possible. Give examples.

1. Self-concept - _____

2. Communication - _____

3. Intellectual Development - _____

EXERCISE 3: True and False

Carefully read each statement below and decide if it is true or false. If the statement is true, place a T on the short blank before the statement. If it is false, place an F on the short blank. Correct all false statements by changing only the highlighted portion.

- _____ 1. Skills are the coordinated movements of the body that come from *learning*.

- _____ 2. Hands and arms control occurs before *head control*.

- _____ 3. *Training* is the least efficient way of learning skills.

- _____ 4. Speech is the *interchange* of feelings, thoughts and emotions.

- _____ 5. Because babies find *nouns and verbs* the most useful parts of speech, their first vocabulary is made up mostly of these words.
- _____ 6. Physical development proceeds from the *feet upward*.
- _____ 7. Control of the organs of elimination is well advanced by the time the toddler is *two years* of age.
- _____ 8. Pronouncing words is learned through *trial and error*.
- _____ 9. Training is the most efficient way of learning *dressing skills*.
- _____ 10. Body control means coordinated movements of the body resulting from *maturation*.
- _____ 11. The pattern of gaining *body control* follows the laws of developmental direction.
- _____ 12. By *two years* of age most babies can recognize their own names.
- _____ 13. At three months of age, the emotions of *anger and disgust* show up in a baby.

- _____ 14. *Erikson* proposed a very interesting theory on development of intelligence, reasoning and thinking.

- _____ 15. By *two years* of age, a child can pull down zippers and push buttons through their holes.

EXERCISE 4: Short Answers

1. Why do young children show more fear than they did as babies?

2. What type of eating utensils are most suitable for babies?

3. Many parents view baby talk as being "cute". To encourage the child to continue using baby talk, the parents copy the child's incorrect pronunciation. List *two* reasons why baby talk is harmful.

4. In the discussion of growth stages, what important factor about individuals should be kept in mind?

5. Allan's mother is trying to toilet train him. She puts Allen on an adult-sized toilet seat and hands him a toy truck to play with. What is wrong with her technique(s)? Support your answer.

EXERCISE 5: Short Paragraph

1. In a short paragraph, discuss:
"Why is early stimulation of intellectual and emotional learning important?"

[illegible]

2. Discuss in a short paragraph:

"How can understanding the importance of the early activities of infants influence your response to them?"

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1621 Personal Living Skills 10

Module B

Revised 10/88

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MAILING INSTRUCTIONS FOR CORRESPONDENCE LESSONS

1. BEFORE MAILING YOUR LESSONS, PLEASE SEE THAT:

- (1) All pages are numbered and in order, and no paper clips or staples are used.
- (2) All exercises are completed. If not, explain why.
- (3) Your work has been re-read to ensure accuracy in spelling and lesson details.
- (4) The Lesson Record Form is filled out and the correct lesson label is attached.
- (5) This mailing sheet is placed on the lesson.

2. POSTAGE REGULATIONS

Do **not** enclose letters with lessons.

Send all letters in a separate envelope.

3. POSTAGE RATES

First Class

Take your lesson to the Post Office and have it weighed. Attach sufficient postage and a green first-class sticker to the front of the envelope, and seal the envelope. Correspondence lessons will travel faster if first-class postage is used.

Try to mail each lesson as soon as it has been completed.

When you register for correspondence courses, you are expected to send lessons for correction regularly. Avoid sending more than two or three lessons in one subject at the same time.

THE PRESCHOOL YEARS

Childhood is indeed, the foundation period of life for the basic attitudes and behavior patterns (the way the child feels and acts) to be developed. They largely determine what kind of a person the child will be as an adult.

During the preschool years, which cover the ages from two years to five years of age, the child is just beginning to learn how to use his rapidly developing mental abilities. He is first learning how to fit his behavior to the patterns accepted by society.

To most parents, preschool children have boundless stores of energy; they seem to be constantly in motion. Despite their high energy, they cannot concentrate their efforts on any one project for too long a time. They tend to have shorter attention spans than older children. For example, a young preschooler turns the pages of a story book very quickly, whereas, a child entering school will spend hours making a town out of blocks - including apartments, houses, buildings, streets.

In this lesson we will discuss the physical factors that add to the child's well-being and personal and social adjustment. The emotional development will cover how a child's emotions differ from those of adults and why the preschool years are a time for a child to learn to control the expression of his emotions. The social development (personality) part of this lesson will deal with ways adults can help a child develop positive self-concepts and traits. These are the factors that make up an individual's personality pattern. In the intellectual development section, factors affecting a child's intellectual abilities will be discussed.

PHYSICAL GROWTH - PRESCHOOL YEARS

A child's physical growth during the early childhood years is different from growth during infancy. Unless parents and babysitters are aware of certain facts about growth, they may worry about whether there is something wrong with the child.

After infancy, growth goes on at a slower rate all through childhood. A young child still grows faster than an older child, but his growth is slower than that of babies. Also there is more internal growth than external growth. The heart, the lungs and the digestive system grow rapidly, but height and weight increase at a slower rate.

Physical development is greater than physical growth. As a result, a child's body changes greatly in proportions. When a child reaches his sixth birthday, he does not look like the same person he was as a baby.

Height and Weight

When early childhood begins, a child is about half as tall as he will be when he reaches adulthood. However, his weight is only about one-fifth of his adult weight. The greatest weight increase occurs during the first five years of life. By the age of five the average person will weigh about five times his birth weight. During the next seven years, a person's weight will be more than double. If he kept on growing at the rate he grew during the first year of life, he would be about six meters (20 feet) tall as adults. The weight would have to be measured in tonnes (tons).

During the early childhood years, a child grows 8 to 13 cm (3 to 5 inches) a year and gains 1 kg to 2 kg (3 to 5 pounds). Between the ages of 2 and 6, the child grows between 28 cm and 43 cm (11 and 17 inches) in height. This rate of growth is much slower than the gains of the first two years of life.

Likewise, gains in weight are slower in early childhood than in babyhood. By his sixth birthday, the child who has tripled his weight in his first year is only six times as heavy as he was at birth! In spite of this gain of several kilograms (pounds) a young child looks thinner than he did in babyhood. In fact many children look scrawny (bony and skinny) by the time they are old enough to go to school. There are two reasons why a child becomes scrawny as he grows older. First, the rate of increase in height is greater than the increase in weight. Eight centimeters (three inches) added to a body that is already 81 cm to 86 cm (32 to 34 inches) tall shows up more clearly than one kilogram (3 pounds) added to a body that weighs 11 kg or 12 kg (24 to 26 pounds). The small weight gain is spread over the whole body, which is 8 cm (3 or more inches) taller. This means that the weight gain is spread so thin that it is barely noticed.

Second, the weight gain in early childhood comes more from growth in bones and muscles rather than from fat tissues. On the other hand, in babyhood, weight gain comes mainly from fat tissues.

Individual Differences in Growth

Even though all children follow the same basic pattern of growth, there are differences at every age level. There are greater differences in weight than in height. For

example, it is unusual for a child to be more than 5 cm (2 inches) taller or shorter than the average height for children of the same age. But differences of 2 kg to 5 kg (5 to 10 pounds) are quite common. A child is more likely to weigh more than the average for his age than to weigh less than the average.

The reason for this difference is that weight is affected more by environment than is height. Sometimes parents worry about slow growth and they force the child to eat. This often has little effect on the child's height, but has a marked effect on his weight, the reason being that height is controlled more by heredity than by environment.

There are many factors responsible for the differences in body growth during the preschool years. Let us look at these factors more closely.

1. Heredity - Short parents are more likely to have short children and tall parents are more likely to have tall children.
2. Poor Nutrition - Though few Canadian children are starving, the growth of many children is stunted by a lack of the right kinds of food, mainly proteins.
3. Emotional Stress - A child brought up in a home where there is a great deal of emotional stress may not grow as fully as he should.
4. Sex - On the average, boys tend to be taller and heavier than girls. There are, however, many exceptions.
5. Body Build - Children with stout body builds usually weigh more than children who have slender bodies, even if they are the same height.
6. Intelligence - In most cases, bright children are larger in size than dull children and they usually reach puberty slightly earlier. Again, there are many exceptions to this.
7. Health - Poor health or illness slows down growth, but this usually is not a lasting thing. When a child's health improves, there is usually a period of catch-up growth.
8. Teething - While the last of the child's teeth cut through his gums during the third year, the child is less hungry, and he grows more slowly. This does not last for a child usually makes up the lost growth after teething is over.

Today there are too many young children who are overweight. In the past, gland problems were believed to be the cause of obesity. As a result, it was thought that the person could do nothing about his overweight problem, unless the glandular trouble was controlled by medicine.

Presently, however, research has indicated that only a few people are obese because of glandular problems. Most are overweight because of overeating particularly overeating of sweets and starches which are usually desserts and snacks.

Motor Development in the Preschool Years

Motor development in early childhood increases more slowly than the period immediately after birth. This development can be seen in age-related changes in patterns of coordination and in increasing strength. The following chart shows the preschool child as one who moves and manipulates more like an adult. When reading a chart that shows average development for various ages like the one on the next page, it is important to keep in mind that this is a summary of a group of children and that it does not picture any one child as he is.

MOTOR DEVELOPMENT DURING THE PRESCHOOL YEARS

	Age Two	Age Three	Age Four	Age Five
Eye-Hand	Builds tower of 6 or 7 blocks Turns book pages singly Spoon into mouth without turning Holds glass in one hand Imitates circular stroke Puts on simple garment	Builds tower of 9 blocks Makes bridge of 3 blocks Catches ball, arm straight Spills little from spoon Pours from pitcher Unbuttons, puts shoes on Copies circle Draws straight line	Cuts on line with scissors Makes designs and crude letters Catches small ball, elbows in front of body Dresses self Throws ball overhand	Folds paper into double triangle Copies square and triangle Catches small ball, elbows at sides Throws well Fastens buttons he can see Copies designs, letters, numbers
Locomotion	Wide stance, runs well Walks up and down stairs alone Kicks large ball Descends large ladder Jumps 12" Hurls ball Propels self with riding toys on casters	Walks tiptoe Jumps from bottom stair Stands on one foot Hops, both feet Propels wagon, one foot Rides tricycle Descends long steps, unsupported Jumps 18"	Gallops Descends small ladder, alternating feet easily Stunts on tricycle Descends short steps, alternating feet, unsupported Skips on one foot	Narrow stance Skips Hops on one foot, 10 or more steps Descends large ladder, alternating feet easily Walks straight line Establishes handedness

Sex Differences in Motor Development

Girls begin to show superiority in manual dexterity early. From about the age of five onward, girls show a superior ability in tasks that require very precise muscle movements such as finger dexterity. For example, as a hobby, some girls make tiny intricate designs in needle-point or embroider complex patterns quite easily.

From five years of age and on, boys start to become more efficient in those tasks that require strength, endurance and speed. These differences become more noticeable during and after puberty when muscular growth increases considerably more for boys than for girls.

Between the ages of two and six, boys can be found to excel in going up and down ladders and steps, bouncing, throwing and catching balls and jumping from ladders and boxes. Girls can perform better than boys in hopping, skipping and galloping. The latter can be observed in a kindergarten class where there is almost sure to be several little boys who merely run or gallop while the other children skip.

Boys and girls differ in their use of outdoor space in a nursery school, for example. Boys play outdoors more than girls, spending more time in sand, on a tractor, on climbing equipment and near an equipment shed.

Concerns About A Child's Growth

If parents do not know the normal growth pattern during early childhood, they may worry about the way their child is growing. Their worries are mostly of two types: worry because the child is not growing as fast as he used to and worry about variations in body sizes.

The first reason for what is wrong with the child is that the child is not eating enough. So the parents usually start trying to fatten the child. Many nutritional problems and bad food habits begin this way.

Another kind of problem may arise because of a child's size. Size has an effect on what the parents think the child can and should do. When a child is larger than his age-mates, parents usually expect more from him than the child is capable of doing. When he does not live up to what is expected of him, his parents may find fault with him for not "acting his age." This is not fair to the child. He may be acting his chronological age (the number of years he has lived) but not his physical age, as judged by his body size.

A child who is smaller than his age-mates is often treated like a younger child. He may not get the rights, responsibilities and chances to learn that other children his age get.

To a young child, differences in size do not matter unless playmates, parents, or other adults say something about it. When adults say that big children look so healthy, a tall child will be pleased. However, he will feel differently if a playmate says "You are too big to play" or nicknames the child "Stilts". Long-lasting damage to a child's self respect can be caused by unpleasant remarks about his body size.

- Body Proportions

During the preschool years, all parts of the child's body grow, but at different rates. As a result, the body still does not have the proportions of adults or babies.

In the head, the forehead area develops faster than the lower part of the face, the reason being the very rapid growth of the brain. As the child's face grows longer, it loses its babyish look. However, the nose and mouth remain small compared with the size of the head. Also the eyes are ears still seem too large. When permanent teeth replace baby teeth, the jaw takes shape.

The trunk grows longer and broader during this period. It seems somewhat longer than it is because the young child develops a neck. The sloping shoulders that seemed to blend into the baby's short, thick neck become broader and more clearly shaped. The lower part of the trunk also changes and a waistline begins to appear.

The young child's arms grow much longer between babyhood and age of six. Because the muscles grow at a very slow rate, the arms are straight and thin. This gives the child an "all-arms" look.

The legs, which were proportionally too small in babyhood, grow during the years of early childhood, but at a slower rate than the arms. When comparing them to a baby's legs, they look longer than they really are because they straighten out, especially at the knees. They are thin and do not have well-developed muscles. The young child's foot has no arch and as a result, it looks larger than it really is.

- Bones, Fat and Muscles

The bones of a preschool child have more cartilage and less density of minerals. As a result, the bones are still soft enough to mend if they are broken. However, bones

can easily be misshaped. For example, a young child should not sit in chairs made for adults. They may get into the habit of slouching and this can lead to a slight curvature of the spine.

The fatty tissue, adipose, develops faster than muscle tissue during this period. A child who eats too much carbohydrate and too little protein will develop too many fat cells and this may make him tend to be overweight for the rest of his life.

The joints of a preschool child are more flexible and their ligaments and muscles are attached less firmly than an older child's. Therefore, it is easier to damage his bones, joints and muscles by pressure and pulling.

- Teeth

Most of the twenty "baby" teeth cut through the gums shortly after babyhood ends and the permanent teeth are developing rapidly in the gums. Many parents fail to stress the importance of the care of baby teeth, because they know they will be replaced. They may have a child clean his teeth often enough but not take the child for dental checkups. Also once a child has learned to use a toothbrush, parents often fail to see that the child gives his teeth a good cleaning.

The decay of baby teeth is not quite as serious as decay of permanent teeth. However, the decay of baby teeth can spread to the permanent teeth forming behind them.

There are two serious effects of removing baby teeth before the natural pattern:

1. Effect on Permanent Teeth - The teeth next to the empty space may shift slightly while waiting for the permanent tooth to come in. When this happens, there is not enough room for the permanent tooth to come in straight. As a result, it comes in crooked, often overlapping the tooth beside it.
2. Effects on Speech - A gap between the teeth makes it hard for the child to say certain sounds like "r," "d" and "s" the correct way. Most children lisp or soften sounds while they are changing from baby to permanent teeth. If the baby teeth are pulled too soon, the lisping is more likely to last longer and could turn into a habit.

Children's Illnesses During the Preschool Years

Even for healthy children, illness is common in the preschool years. If a child is in good physical condition, his illness need not be serious. Parents, however, should attend to any sign of illness quickly.

Following are some illnesses that occur during the preschool years. They are in order from most common to least common.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Colds accompanied by stuffed noses and earaches | 5. Diseased tonsils |
| 2. Upper respiratory illnesses (sore throats, coughs, wheezing) | 6. Enlarged or infected adenoids |
| 3. Gastrointestinal illnesses (stomach aches, vomiting, constipation, diarrhea) | 7. Allergic reactions (hives, skin rashes) |
| 4. Contagious children's illnesses like chicken pox, measles, German measles, and mumps. | 8. Heart diseases |
| | 9. Tuberculosis |
| | 10. Rheumatic fever |
| | 11. Cancer, most of all leukemia. |

In a family where there are no older children, a young child is less likely to get a disease like mumps or measles. If he has been immunized against such diseases, he will either not get them or will only have a mild case.

Few young children escape illness totally. Some seem to have more than their fair share. These are referred to as "illness-prone". There are many reasons why children are illness-prone. Some are just not as healthy as others and this would be due to inherited conditions, allergies, or poor nutrition and care.

Effects of Illness on the Preschool Child

The psychological effects of illness during this stage are often greater than the physical ones. Since both are considered serious, childhood illnesses should be kept at a low level, if possible.

Let us investigate the physical and psychological effects of illnesses on young children.

- Physical Effects

1. The eating, sleeping and toileting times are often changed.
2. Physical growth may stop for a short while.
3. The child may lose weight.
4. Lack of activity causes the muscles to weaken and lose coordination.

- Psychological Effects

1. Only quiet play is permissible during illness which leads to boredom and fussiness.
2. The environment (often one room or bed) also causes boredom.
3. Lack of hunger builds up resistance to eating and this may lead to eating problems after health returns.
4. Sometimes a child is not allowed to play with a sick child. This causes boredom.
5. A child soon learns that he can get more attention when ill than if he were well.
6. If parents are less likely to scold or punish a sick child, the child may learn that it pays to behave badly.
7. Boredom and not feeling well can change a child's disposition to that of an unpleasant, fault-finding person.

The psychological effects play a part in both the child's personal and social adjustments. Hence, these effects are more far-reaching than the physical results. They are also much harder to correct after the child returns to normal health.

A child sometimes becomes spoiled while sick. He expects to be the center of attention when he is well enough. This may make other children not want to play with him because he seems too bossy. His playmates may also have learned new play skills and games while he was sick.

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT DURING THE PRESCHOOL YEARS

The preschool period of a child is an emotional stage. Emotional outbursts are stronger and occur more frequently at this age than at any other time of life, the reason being that young children have not yet learned to behave as society expects. As a child's social environment broadens and he is exposed to more people outside the home, he learns that he has to control his stronger emotional expressions like kicking, biting, hitting with anger, running away and hiding when frightened, jumping and screaming loudly when happy.

Emotions develop partly from maturing but mainly through learning which is very important in the child's emotional development. It affects the causes of emotions and the kinds of behavior that result. Let us look more closely at the role of learning in a child's emotions.

Learning by Trial-and-Error - This mostly affects the response of the emotion. When a child discovers that a certain response is satisfying, he keeps on using it, for example, exploring things that make him curious. If he finds little satisfaction from exploring or if blocks are put in his way to keep him from exploring, he will try out other ways like asking questions until he finds one that meets his needs.

Learning by Imitation - This affects both the cause of the emotion and the response. If a playmate or sibling is afraid of dogs, the child, through imitation, will also be afraid. If his friend shows fear by running away and hiding, the child will do likewise.

Conditioning - This is learning by association. The child learns to like people who are kind and to dislike those who are unkind to him. Eventually, these conditioned emotions spread to people who seem like those whom the child likes or dislikes. Conditioning has little effect on the emotional reaction; it mainly affects the causes of the emotion.

Training - When emotions develop under supervision, a child learns to respond with behavior that is accepted by the group. He learns when certain emotions are all right and when they are not needed or not acceptable. For example, a child discovers with guidance that many of the things he once thought frightening are really not fearful at all.

Parents should guide the development of their child's emotions as much as possible. They should control the environment and give their child positive learning experiences. Then more pleasant emotions show up than unpleasant ones.

With fear, parents can control what children see on television or in books and comics. Then the children will not have material on which to base imaginary fear experiences. To prevent children from becoming jealous of brothers and sisters, parents can show equal love and attention to all the children. Every child should feel special.

For most children, going to the hospital is a frightening experience because they are afraid of being alone (away from their parents and home surroundings). In many cases, the parents are allowed or asked to stay

in the hospital with the child. They are able to give the child the comforts of love and attention when they are most needed. They can also help with the child's care, keeping the child from feeling lonely in an unknown place.

Differences Between Adults' and Children's Emotions

Knowing that a child's emotions differ from those of an adult is important for two reasons. First, it keeps adults from judging a child harshly just because a child's emotional behavior differs from their own. Second, it shows where adult supervision is needed. The child can be guided to learn to control his emotional behavior so that eventually his behavior will meet social standards.

For example, a child's emotions are more aroused than an adult's. Parents can control the child's environment so there will be fewer times that the child becomes upset. Maybe the child could be given more chances to be independent and that will take away some of the frustrations that lead to angry outbursts.

Common Emotions of the Preschool Child

Affection - Anything like a toy, pet, or person that give a child pleasure become the object of the child's affection. The child shows this by wanting to be the loved one all the time, patting, kissing, fondling it and saying "I love you".

Anger - A child becomes angry when he is kept from doing what he wants to do, is attacked by another child, has toys grabbed from him, is taken away from doing something he thinks is important to him, or he fails to do something he thinks he is able to do. He expresses his anger in the form of temper tantrums. He may hit, kick, jump up and down, throw himself on the floor, cry and scream.

Curiosity - Objects or things that are different and new to a child make him want to explore them. Later, when a child can answer questions, he adds facts given in answers to what he has learned from exploring.

Envy - The usual causes of envy in a preschool child are the things other children can do or own. The child expresses his envy by wishing he had these things, by complaining about what other children have, or by taking the things he envies.

Fear - During the preschool years, a child fears anything that is new and strange. For example, fears of the dark, of being left alone and of imaginary creatures in the dark. The usual fear patterns of children this age are running away and hiding or running to the parents and crying.

Grief - The loss of something to a child, for instance the loss of a family pet, family member or loved toy, makes him cry and refuse to do what he usually does. Until the grief passes, the child will be inactive, withdrawn and cry a lot.

Jealousy - Whenever a parent or anyone close to the child shows more interest in and gives more attention to another child than to him, he resents it. He expresses his jealousy by reverting to childish behavior, demanding that he be waited on as he was when he was a baby.

Joy - A child feels joy (all-over feeling of happiness) when he wins a prize or does something well. A mild form of joy is expressed by smiling and laughing whereas stronger forms are shown by jumping up and down, shouting with glee, hugging anything nearby like a person, toy, animal, etc.

Teaching the Child Emotional Control

Children must learn emotional control which is essential for living in any society. If parents see that their child is having frequent emotional outbursts and they are becoming stronger, they start to feel that the child is not likely to outgrow these outbursts.

Many parents believe that punishment of some form (spanking, slapping, sending a child to his room, or keeping him from having something he especially enjoys) is the best way to teach control. This is unfortunate for a child may be frightened into controlling his emotions by punishment. This is not a satisfactory way to handle the problem.

For success, emotional control must come from within, not from an outside source. A child must control his own emotions and when he is ready to learn, his control depends on his abilities. The child needs to understand what others say, talk to express himself clearly, and most important of all, he needs to be able to reason. Few children before the age of four have the foundations for these abilities. Many parents do not know this and they expect a child to have emotional control earlier than he is able to.

Before a child can learn emotional control, he must want to learn it and he must be able to express his feelings in another way. Also, he must gain some satisfaction from this other method.

Learning emotional control is a long and difficult task, and therefore no one should expect a child to have his emotions under control totally when he enters grade one. Studies have indicated that most emotional outbursts reach their peak between the ages of four and five. Then they begin to lessen. Most adolescents do not have a mature level of emotional control.

Emotional Tolerance

When a child can reason, he is ready to begin to learn how to deal with unpleasant emotions without becoming too upset by them. This is referred to as emotional tolerance.

Slowly parents can begin to relax their control over the child's environment. Occasionally, a child should be placed in situations where the child can experience anger, fear, jealousy or envy. When possible, a child should be notified in advance why he cannot have or do something he wants. This helps to keep the child from having a temper tantrum. Soon this leads to frustration tolerance - the ability to deal with things that keep him from getting what he wants.

Children should also be told ahead of time what to expect when they are taken to a dentist or doctor or when they have to be hospitalized. They are not as frightened if they are somewhat prepared. A basis for fear tolerance (the ability to face new situations without being overly frightened) is being established. Also, foundations can be laid for envy and jealousy tolerance. For example, parents can explain to their child why they have to give more time to a new baby or they can explain to him why they cannot spend the money needed to buy him some of the things his friends have.

In time, a child will be able to tolerate unpleasant emotions, even anger. Until this happens, it is essential that his environment be controlled. However, this does not mean that the child should be protected from all unpleasant emotions. Mainly pleasant emotions should constitute the emotions of a child's life. Through careful guidance by the parents, a child learns to deal with unpleasant emotions and when he ventures beyond his home environment, he can cope with it. Learning this is very essential to building the child's well-adjusted personality.

Stages of Development of Moral Judgment

According to Piaget the child's moral judgment develops as follows:

1. nonrecognition of rules
2. recognition of rules as absolute and morally correct, as given by authority
3. recognition of the arbitrary nature of rules and
4. recognition of the changeability of rules.

The first stage in the development of conscience is the growth of a normal emotional dependence of the child on parents. Developing a conscience (learning to accept and internalize rules) is dependent upon a child's ability to trust his parents. During the preschool years, conscience is a very delicate and fragile structure. During this time, a child vacillates between assuming responsibility for his behavior and letting adults decide whether his behavior is right or wrong.

By the age of four or five, Piaget's stage two begins. A child generally follows the rules laid down by his parents in regard to right and wrong behavior.

When a child has internalized his parents' rules and regulations so that he can control his own behavior, life really becomes easier for him. He does not have to worry about what his parents will do if he behaves this way or that way. In the third stage, the child can make many decisions for himself with his conscience as his guide. This is an important step in the child's development toward maturity because eventually he must learn to guide his own actions and control his undesirable impulses.

It is very significant for parents not to overstress right and wrong, good and bad, during these early years when a young child is expressing freely his natural impulses and desires. A child should never be made to feel that he is "bad" even though his behavior is not good.

CASE STUDY

John, three years old, seemed to be "beside" himself at times in playschool. Mrs. Smith, the playschool teacher, would pick him up to help him and he would cuddle up in her arms. Mrs. Smith would say, "John, you need someone to love you and make you safe, don't you?" There would be a low, serious, "Yes." Mrs. Smith was puzzled about his extreme need at times.

One stormy day, when many of the children were absent, Mrs. Smith let John's four-and-one-half-year-old brother stay. He had wanted to stay so many times. At juice time, John scowled and shouted at a child who took two crackers, "That's naughty. You are a bad boy." Mrs. Smith asked John "You think Allen was a bad boy to take two crackers?" Before John could answer, his older brother said, "The devil's angels will throw you in a lake of fire if you are bad." Mrs. Smith was aghast but encouraged the brother to talk about it. She discovered that John's mother had read some things about theology to the older brother and he had gleefully repeated them to John as truth. The picture became clearer after Mrs. Smith talked to the mother. The older boy was very close to his mother, the baby got his share of time and attention, but here was that middle one, John, feeling out of the circle, not being able to make himself be that good boy to escape "the lake of fire."

Thoughts of moral judgment went through Mrs. Smith's mind. It had been just the other day that Debbie, a four-and-one-half-year-old, had spilled some water on Cathy and had immediately said "It was an accident. I didn't mean to do it." Cathy had been shocked by the sudden water, but recovered gracefully after taking in what Debbie had said. She had arrived at the stage where she could understand the idea of "intention" in making a judgment. Thinking about that incident led to thinking about her niece, who when she knocked over her glass of milk said in a pleading question form, rather than a statement, "I'm not a bad girl?" She had the idea of "intention" but wasn't sure others had it.

A child can become so anxious and fearful of doing something wrong that he becomes afraid of anything unless specifically told to do so. Anxiety can be a product of conscience. A child can be conditioned to feel anxious and guilty if he allows his impulses rather than his conscience to dominate. It is at the age of around six years that a child develops guilt feelings, another step toward moral development.

CASE STUDY

James was a small, active, bright-eyed three-and-a-half-year-old boy. When James appeared bored, the playschool teacher, Mrs. Greenhill, learned that James was about to do something quite unacceptable. She knew that she had better find something interesting for him to do. However, this was not always possible.

In talking to the mother, who was a gentle, patient, pleasant person, the teacher learned that James had quite a history of being destructive. But what was more important to Mrs. Greenhill was the attitude of the parents. Mrs. Greenhill was sure she would have been tense, worried, and angry about such activities as cutting off the hair of his sister's doll and several times plugging the toilet so that the plumber had to be hired to fix it. But James' parents told it with a sort of puzzlement, wonder and kind of elation. Mrs. Greenhill thought about it for some time and suspected that both parents must have repressed such escapades as children - maybe had been "too good" - and here was an attractive child doing the things they had repressed. Needless to say, due to the apparent vicarious enjoyment the parents received, and although James had been punished, James was not getting the help he needed to form a typical conscience for his age level.

One day an opportunity arose. He had climbed up to an inappropriate place. Mrs. Greenhill went up to him and said "James, you don't make yourself stop doing wrong things. Grownups have to stop you. You can stop yourself. You can make yourself get down." He responded readily. Time proved that he had thought about what Mrs. Greenhill had said. The student helpers were encouraged to help James develop his own judgment and controls. They would warn him by saying, "Having a hard time controlling yourself?" or, "OK, James, control yourself."

When James was nearly five years old his mother reported that he had come in one day and disgustedly said, "I need a spanking." He had been painting the car with paint remover.

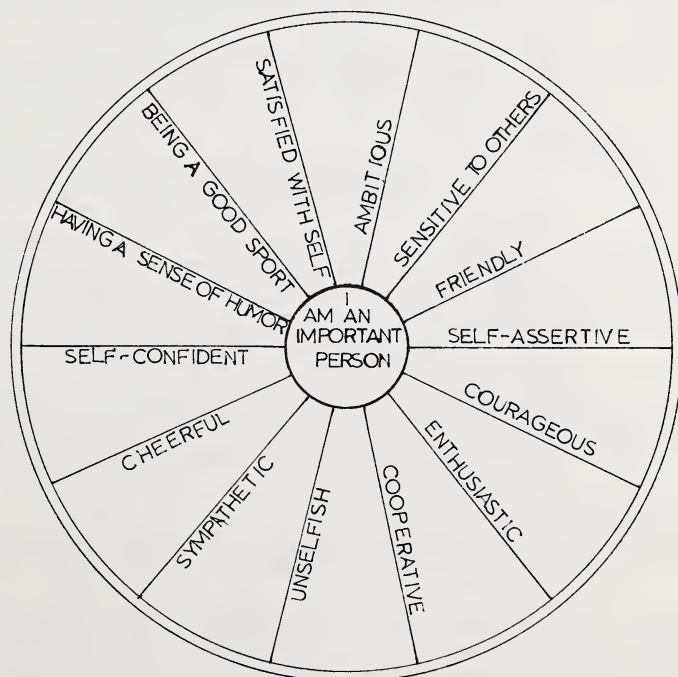
Conscience, imagination and initiative contribute to fears. When a child is eager to explore and to try out new activities, he tends to push beyond the limits set by his parents. A child begins to recognize the rules that govern behavior. Once the child recognizes them, he insists upon their rigid application until he learns later that rules are not ends in themselves. During the third and sixth years of age, some of the voice of society (by way of the family) is absorbed by the child, internalized and integrated as part of his character. The first three stages of Piaget's development of moral judgment have been achieved. Piaget's fourth stage is discussed in Lesson 4.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT - BUILDING A PERSONALITY

Young children identify with people that are important to them and with the people who have an attractive personality. Let us look more closely at personality development during early childhood.

The Personality Pattern

The quality of a child's behavior is the result of a child's traits and self-concept. These make up the child's personality pattern which can be viewed as a wheel with the spokes representing the different traits and the hub being the self-concept - the core of the personality pattern.



Personality traits indicate how a child has adjusted to life. They are patterns of behavior that a child has learned while growing up and they are affected by the self-concepts a child has developed. A child who has learned to think of himself as being more important than other people becomes bossy, cocky, self-centered, selfish and arrogant.

Before a child is ready for school, his main personality traits are well established. Studies have indicated how important the preschool years are in building a personality. An aggressive child usually develops into an aggressive adult. As he grows older, he changes his ways of expressing his aggression. Also, a self-confident child who makes good personal and social adjustments usually becomes a self-confident adult. This is not the case when, in early childhood, the child has little faith in his abilities.

How the Personality Pattern Develops

The development of one's personality is largely dependent on learning. A child bases what he thinks of himself on what he believes others think of him. The way a child learns to think of himself happens without anyone being especially concerned about it. In other words, there is no direct training to help a child develop his self-concept.

Parents are mostly concerned with helping their child develop personality traits that lead to good social adjustments. For example, they teach their child to cooperate, to be a good sport, and to be unselfish. Parents know that these traits are liked by others and are essential to doing well in life.

For personality building to occur, a child has to develop a positive self-concept and parents should control situations that can lead to negative self-concepts. For example, a child may feel that everyone is better than he is. He may express his unselfishness by being too giving and give "the shirt off his back". He is doing this not because of a healthy desire to share, but because he thinks that everyone else is more deserving. In this case parents will have to teach the child to be unselfish, but in a more honest way. The child has to have respect for himself so that people will not take advantage of him. Likewise, he will not feel any need to try and "buy" friendship.

Sometimes parents have to take a close look at their own personality patterns which do affect the child's. For instance, a parent may find he has to shift from stressing criticism and punishment to stressing praise. Negative criticism can be replaced with ideas of how the child can do things the right way. A child views this positive treat-

ment as parental approval of him and it indicates to him that his parents are trying to help him do better. The child can then think well of himself and feel good about who he is.

The environment which surrounds the child has an effect on this personality pattern. At this stage, the child spends most of his time in the home environment. The ideal home environment for personality building is one where all family members are friendly and happy. Being part of a family where the members are cheerful and cooperative, a child cannot help but develop similar personality traits. Family members should be respected and given rights and responsibilities suited to their age levels. When a child tries to do what is expected of him, he is encouraged and praised. In these ways, a child gains self-confidence.

An Attractive Personality

An attractive personality is one in which most of the personality traits are those people admire. This does not mean that all the traits are acceptable for it is impossible to find someone who has only pleasing traits.

Of course all parents want their children to have attractive personalities. First they believe an attractive personality will be of value to the child all through life and secondly, a child's attractive personality reflects well on them as parents.

What are some ways parents can help a child develop positive personality traits?

1. **Unselfishness** - developed by encouraging a child to share and to do kind things for others and rewarding any unselfish acts with praise.
2. **Sympathy** - developed very slowly. It depends on the development of imagination. A child must be interested in others and learn to imagine himself in another's place. He has to know how he would feel if something bad or sad happened to him.
3. **Sense of Humour** - encouraged by helping a child see the light side of problem situations. This also gives the child a good model to imitate.
4. **Self-Confidence** - developed best by praising a child when he tries to do what is expected of him, and letting him do things for himself as soon as he can.
5. **Enthusiasm** - encouraged by good health, being surrounded by enthusiastic people, making plans and looking forward to carrying them out, and stressing pleasant things the child does.

6. **Courage** - developed by giving the child plenty of praise and support for even a slight show of courage.
7. **Cooperativeness** - encouraged by letting a child take part in family chores, having family members enjoy doing things together, and letting a child know that his help is of value.
8. **Cheerfulness** - developed by good health, being surrounded by those whose outlook on life is cheerful, and avoiding frustrations.
9. **Calmness** - developed by controlling the environment so that there will not be strong, uncalled-for excitement. A child should be given good models to imitate.
10. **Being a Good Sport** - encouraged by guidance from parents and good examples of how to take losing gracefully and winning humbly.
11. **Assertiveness** - encouraged by giving a child a chance to express himself in family talks and to make simple decisions.
12. **Ambition** - encouraged by helping a child set goals. These goals should be high enough to call for a real effort, but not so high that they cannot be reached.

INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT DURING THE PRESCHOOL YEARS

Children differ in intellectual abilities which include memory, imagination, creativity, association of meanings, and reasoning. Some are bright, some are average, and others are "slow" learners. There has always been a controversy about intellectual differences - are they caused by heredity or environment? Today it is accepted that these differences are caused by both.

Intellectual Abilities

The ability to use the brain increases as the brain grows larger. It develops internally as it grows in size. However, not all intellectual abilities develop at the same time because the different parts of the brain develop at different times. For example, memory develops before imagination which in turn develops sooner than the ability to reason.

Memory - Memory, the ability to remember, is one of the first intellectual abilities to develop. It is the basis for imagining, creating, associating meanings and reasoning. Parents can do many things to help a child improve his memory. Following are some ideas to better memory in early childhood.

- a. Parents can encourage careful listening and watching. If a child is to remember things, he must have clear sight and sound pictures of these things.
- b. Sights and sounds to be remembered should be made meaningful to the child. The more meanings a child can connect with it, the easier it is for the child to remember it.
- c. Parents should repeat things often to the child for this prevents forgetting.
- d. Parents can play memory games with the child. Show the child several objects and then remove one to see if he can remember which is gone.
- e. They can read the same stories to the child several times and ask the child to tell them as much of the story as the child can.
- f. A child should be taught nursery rhymes, days of the week, the alphabet, numbers, etc. The parent should go over them until the child can say them by himself. This should be regarded as something fun to do, not as a formal lesson.
- g. It is important to help a child learn things as a meaningful whole — a whole sentence, or a whole verse of a poem — instead of learning it in small parts, which keeps the child from understanding its meaning.

If a child learns how to use his memory when he is a preschooler, he will be prepared for much of the school work in the earlier grades. Also, he will have the necessary foundation laid of how to memorize — a skill which is very valuable to him throughout his life.

Imagination — Imagination is a type of mental play where ideas are put together about things and people in forms different from those found in real life. It is done for the enjoyment it gives the child. Until he can speak, it is impossible to know what he imagines and he is unable to share these imaginings with others.

Studies indicate that imagination begins to be vivid around the age of two. It becomes more and more vivid as the child grows older. By five years, a child can distinguish between imagined and real experiences. He continues imagining because he enjoys it.

Imagination is based on memories a child has known in daily life, on what he has seen or heard. To create new imagined experiences, a child uses materials that were read to him and what he sees on television, in comics

or in books. The more striking these sources of images are, the more clearly a child remembers them.

Adults have no difficulty in telling what is real and what is imagined. So often they do not realize that the child cannot tell the difference. Parents know that the things the child reads in story books or sees in storybook pictures or movies are imagined. Parents may become upset when a child gets so frightened by such stories that he refuses to go near people or things that remind him of the movie or story. They worry when their child wakes up at night crying after a nightmare.

Imagination in early childhood comes in many different forms. Let us examine the common ones.

- a. **Daydreaming** - Fantasy takes place while the child is awake and it is based on things a child learns from what is read to him, what he sees on the television screen or in movies, and what he sees in his daily life.
- b. **Imaginary Friends** - A child plays with an imaginary friend as he would with real children. His imaginary friend has all the traits the child wants a real playmate to have.
- c. **White Lies** - White lies are reports of imaginary experiences the child believes. He does not mean to fool anyone by lying.
- d. **Imaginary Illness** - The child imagines that he is suffering from an ache or pain. This imagining is so real that he actually believes that the pain or ache is there and he does not mean to fool others.
- e. **Animism** - In animism, a child imagines non-living objects to have traits of living creatures. For example, a child may believe that a toy has feelings and can speak.
- f. **Exaggeration** - A child usually believes what he exaggerates about himself or other things.
- g. **Dreams** - Dreams differ from daydreams in that they occur when the child is sleeping. Some dreams are so frightening that they wake up the child. These are called nightmares.

Because imagination has the potential to be harmful, parents should be vigilant about the direction their child's imagination takes. There are four ways parents can help a child develop his abilities to imagine. First, parents can help a child to think whether or not experiences are real or imaginary. Second, parents can prevent their child from hearing or seeing things that could lead to harmful or upsetting imaginings. Third, parents should discourage an imaginary experience that will be harmful to the child, even though it is satisfying for the child at that time. Fourth, parents can give a child good sources of material for imagination. For example, they can read their child stories that have enjoyable and positive make-believe parts.

Creativity - Creativity is a controlled form of imagination which is used both for the instant pleasure it gives and for some end result (a painting, a dress, a new piece of music, or a new food dish). Through creativity, the person can add to human progress. Those who are creative are usually better at whatever they do than those who lack creativity.

The preschool years is the period when the possibilities for creativity are developing quickly and it is important that stimulation and guidance be given. The following conditions are important in encouraging or discouraging creative development.

- a. **Child-training methods** - Democratic and permissive discipline encourages creativity whereas strict, authoritarian discipline stifles it.
- b. **Adventurousness** - A child who is encouraged to be adventurous generally tends to be more creative than those who are always warned to be careful.
- c. **Decision-making** - A creative child has usually had the chance to take part in family decisions and to decide about his own affairs.
- d. **Pressures for conformity** - The more a child is obliged to conform to what the group and family expects, the less chance he has to be creative in whatever he does.
- e. **Play equipment** - Very detailed toys that cannot be used in many different ways discourage creativity.
- f. **Criticism** - Destructive criticism discourages creativity whereas constructive criticism offers ideas for improving it and encourages it.

- g. **Ridicule or praise** - Praise for what the child has done along with constructive criticism encourage creativity whereas ridicule and negative criticism discourage it.

There are many times in a child's life when parents can encourage him to be creative. All forms of play (drawing, painting, coloring, modeling clay are some examples) offer the most chances. A child who learns to play creatively develops the habit of doing things in a new way. He then uses this habit when doing other things. Since a child finds the results of creativity satisfying, he is eager to do everything in a new way.

Children should not be given a model to copy; this stifles creativity. Instead, parents should show them how to use the materials and ideas and allow them to make whatever they like. Parents should also guide the children once in a while to give ideas for improvement.

A child often displays his creativity by acting out scenes from stories he has heard or seen. Old pieces of clothing and furniture come in very handy for these purposes.

Another form of play that offers a child the opportunity to use his imagination is to ask him to tell a story or to add to a story being told by someone else. A preschool child is very capable of creating plots and characters that will interest the listeners. Whenever possible, a child should be encouraged to use his own ideas regardless of how simple or confused they are.

Association of Meanings - Association of meanings is also referred to as concept development. A concept is a group of meanings connected with certain people, animals, or things which is developed through learning. Concept development is a complicated and lifelong process. Reasoning, imagination and memory are required to tie meanings together. Concepts are never finished because they are gained at different times and in different situations. Concepts are always changing as new experiences give rise to new meanings.

Following are some means by which a child learns the association of meanings.

- a. **Exploring** - A young child learns much about meanings by looking, listening, smelling, tasting and feeling things.
- b. **Handling** - By touching things, a child learns about weights, smoothness, softness and warmth.

- c. **Asking Questions** - When a child can put words together into sentences, he uses questions to discover meanings he has been unable to get by exploring or handling. When parents refuse to answer a child's questions or give him wrong answers, the parents reduce the chances of the child learning new meanings.
- d. **Mass Media** - A child learns many meanings from books, comics, television. Sometimes these sources are one-sided or make mistakes and a child builds up concepts which are partly or totally wrong in meaning. Parents should always be on guard to correct wrong concepts before they become firmly set in the child's mind.
- e. **Reading** - Whether a child reads by himself or has someone reading to him, he is able to get meanings from reading.

Reasoning and Decision-making - The slowest and last of the mental abilities to develop is the ability to reason. During the preschool years, reasoning is mostly making choices between two or more decisions. To make a decision, a child must be able to remember facts and their meanings and judge which choice is best. Making a decision takes practice and if a young child has had most of his decisions made for him, making a decision is a very difficult task.

A child should be encouraged and allowed to make decisions. For example, he can choose which one of two or three pieces of clothing he would like to wear, which toys he would like to play with, whether he wants beans, corn, or peas for supper, whether he wants to hear a story or look at a book.

The ability to make decisions is important to a child for doing well and being happy in life. The earlier a child learns to make proper decisions, the better prepared he will be to deal with situations where he must make a decision entirely on his own.

To be sure that a child knows the value of making a decision, the parents can ask the child if he is happy with his choice. If the child has made a poor decision, the parents should not make the child feel tense or upset. Parents must also remember that a young child changes his mind often.

Decision-making is a difficult intellectual task and no child is expected to be skilled in this ability during early childhood. The pattern for decision-making is learned by many experiences in which the child makes a decision under the supervision of an adult. When a child develops this pattern, he will solve all his problems in that way.

Often parents wonder when the right time is to start training their child to make decisions. The teachable moment varies for each child. A good rule of thumb is that a child who can speak well enough to ask questions, can put together meaningful sentences and can understand what others say to him is ready for help in learning to make decisions. If a child is ready and teaching has not begun, he is likely to begin making decisions in a trial-and-error manner which leads to snap judgments. These are quick decisions made without thinking enough about all parts of the matter. If a child is allowed to make many of these, he soon gets into the habit of doing so.

A child who has not learned decision-making skills can become a vacillator — a person who swings from one choice to another and never makes a final decision. While swinging back and forth, he does nothing and feels guilty about it. In his uncertainty, he turns to someone else to make that decision for him.

It is impossible for parents to guide a child in every decision he makes. However, they can spend some time on this training. If a decision is important to the child, it is worth taking enough time to explore the problem before a final decision is made.

TYPICAL DAY OF A FOUR OR FIVE-YEAR-OLD CHILD

Janet, a four-and-one-half-year-old child, lives with her family in a small home on the outskirts of a city. She is fortunate to have a large, clean play area in her own yard and in her immediate neighborhood. There are five or six other boys and girls her age, so there is much for Janet to do throughout the day.

She wakes up about seven or seven-thirty A.M. She helps her mother with the breakfast or helps take care of her baby sister. Janet's parents do not expect many routine chores to be done by her for she is too young for that. However, she does pitch in to do some things.

After breakfast Janet will watch some children's programs on television or go outdoors to play. During the summer she plays in her own or her friend's back yard. In winter time she goes to nursery school shortly after breakfast each day.

During the day, Janet engages in a large number of play activities. She and her friends may roam from one yard to another, stop to play with the cats and dogs, or ride their tricycles

and wagons up and down the sidewalks. There will be an occasional disagreement between them. Janet, or one of her playmates, may get hurt now and then; she may end up going home crying once in a while. However, if she is not too sensitive and as long as she plays with children her age, Janet will be able to handle her squabbles with the others without hurting her own or the other children's feelings too much.

To list all the play activities of a four or five-year-old would take many pages. It is sufficient to say that there will be many activities and that none of them will last very long. The attention span (the amount of time they can continue to concentrate on one thing) is fairly short; hence their activities do not follow one line for long.

Janet will have some orange or apple juice during the middle of the morning, or she may get crackers and milk. This will help keep up her energy level until regular mealtime. After lunch she may play for a while, then take a nap, or she may go directly to bed after eating. She will usually have a bath either before or after the afternoon nap. Upon awakening, she will return to her play activities. Orange juice or milk may again be offered to her when she wakes up from her nap.

The same general round of play activities will be engaged in by Janet and her friends until supertime. In the winter, she will come in by about four P.M. to see her favorite programs on television. These programs may occupy her until mealtime. A play period with her father usually comes in the evening. After supper she may also see more programs or she may have a story or two read to her before bedtime. Usually Janet will be in bed by seven-thirty or eight P.M. Sometimes she is restless, does not feel well, wants to go to the bathroom several times, or asks for water as often as she thinks she can get it, or she may do other things to postpone settling down for the night. A friendly but firm attitude on the part of her parents helps Janet learn that she must go to sleep when she is put to bed and that all her "tricks" will get her no-

where. Wise parental handling helps her avoid excessive fussing and crying at bedtime. This also helps prevent her from building up strongly dependent or demanding attitudes towards her parents.

EXERCISE 1: Multiple Choice

Select the best answer and place the appropriate letter in the space to the left of each question.

- _____ 1. Emotions develop by which of the following methods?
- a. trial-and-error learning
 - b. learning
 - c. imitation
 - d. conditioning
 - e. all of the above
 - f. none of the above
- _____ 2. For children to learn to control their emotions, which factor(s) must be present?
- a. They must want to do so.
 - b. They must have a substitute for the emotional outburst.
 - c. They must gain satisfaction from the substitute.
 - d. All of the above.
 - e. None of the above.
- _____ 3. Memory is the basis for other intellectual abilities such as
- a. imagination.
 - b. creativity.
 - c. reasoning.
 - d. association of meanings.
 - e. all of the above.
 - f. none of the above.
- _____ 4. The amount of time a child can continue to concentrate on one thing is referred to as
- a. attention span.
 - b. concept.
 - c. nightmares.
 - d. creativity.
 - e. none of the above.
 - f. all of the above.
- _____ 5. To ensure that children have more pleasant than unpleasant emotions, they must learn _____.
- a. creativity
 - b. emotional tolerance
 - c. personality development
 - d. decision making
 - e. animism

EXERCISE 2: True and False

Carefully read each statement below and decide if it is true or false. If the statement is true, place a T on the short blank to the left of each statement. If it is false, place an F on the blank and correct only the highlighted portion to make it true.

- ____ 1. *Emotional development* depends on the growth and development of the brain and on the stimulation of developing intellectual abilities.

- ____ 2. *Concept development* is the ability to deal with unpleasant emotions without becoming too upset by them.

- ____ 3. Children who are given *freedom to make decisions* for themselves will be better able to handle more serious decisions as they get older.

- ____ 4. Growth in height and in weight during early childhood follows a basic pattern, but there are differences in these patterns due to *heredity and to environment*.

- ____ 5. The *chance to make a poor choice* without suffering serious results is one of the main reasons for having children make some of their own decisions at an early age.

- ____ 6. *Heredity* is the main factor which determines how the self-concept will develop and what forms the different personality traits will take.

- ____ 7. *Reasoning* is one of the first intellectual abilities to develop.

- _____ 8. *Fear tolerance* is the ability to deal with things that keep him from getting what he wants.
- _____ 9. *Imagination* in early childhood takes many forms, some of which are daydreams, imaginary friends, white lies, animism, and imaginary illness.
- _____ 10. Parents' concern about the young child's *physical growth* may lead to the child's problem behavior.

EXERCISE 3: Short Answers

1. Why should parents keep in mind that a child's emotions differ from an adult's?

2. What happens when children do not learn how to make decisions?

3. Define:

(a) Creativity -

(b) Concept Development -

(c) Personality -

(d) Conditioning -

4. What disadvantages does a child smaller than his playmates face?

5. Why are a preschool child's bones easy to mend if broken?

6. Suppose a young child is self-conscious about being fatter, thinner, taller, or shorter than his playmate. How would you try to help him overcome it?

7. What are two serious effects of removing a child's baby teeth before the natural pattern?

(a) _____

(b) _____

EXERCISE 4: Short Paragraphs

In a short paragraph, discuss "*Reasons for and against parents remaining in the hospital with a sick child.*" Be careful with your sentence structure, grammar, and punctuation.

EXERCISE 5: Short Essay

In your essay discuss *"Why positive traits developed in childhood also add to an attractive personality in adulthood."* Be sure to give your essay a title and observe the rules of spelling, sentence structure and paragraph construction in writing your essay.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

1621 Personal Living Skills 10

Module B

Revised 10/88

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ALBERTA CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL

MAILING INSTRUCTIONS FOR CORRESPONDENCE LESSONS

1. BEFORE MAILING YOUR LESSONS, PLEASE SEE THAT:

- (1) All pages are numbered and in order, and no paper clips or staples are used.
- (2) All exercises are completed. If not, explain why.
- (3) Your work has been re-read to ensure accuracy in spelling and lesson details.
- (4) The Lesson Record Form is filled out and the correct lesson label is attached.
- (5) This mailing sheet is placed on the lesson.

2. POSTAGE REGULATIONS

Do **not** enclose letters with lessons.

Send all letters in a separate envelope.

3. POSTAGE RATES

First Class

Take your lesson to the Post Office and have it weighed. Attach sufficient postage and a green first-class sticker to the front of the envelope, and seal the envelope. Correspondence lessons will travel faster if first-class postage is used.

Try to mail each lesson as soon as it has been completed.

When you register for correspondence courses, you are expected to send lessons for correction regularly. Avoid sending more than two or three lessons in one subject at the same time.

THE SCHOOL AGE CHILD

The school age child for our purposes in this module will be looked at in the following two subdivisions:

1. Early elementary school years which will cover the ages from six to ten and
2. Late elementary school years which will cover the years from eleven to twelve.

PHYSICAL GROWTH - SCHOOL AGE CHILD

Each child develops in his own way. Different parts and systems of the body grow at different rates and at different times. Every aspect of personal and social development is affected by the body. First impressions are often based on a person's physical characteristics and how he carries himself. Typically many of us may describe one person to another by his age and physical characteristics like coloring, weight, height and body build. Attributes such as grace or awkwardness, obesity or thinness, long or short hair are mentioned. An individual's concept of his body appears to be closely related to his self-concept. A person who thinks highly of himself is likely to be accepting of his body. A person who is self-rejecting often rejects his body image.

Heredity (the transfer of characteristics from parents to offspring) accounts for individual differences among children. Intellectual potential and physical traits are inherited from parents. However, the environment affects the development of these inherited characteristics. Together these act to influence an individual's physical and mental development. But heredity limits what the environment can do in influencing a child's development. For example, every child's potential height is determined by heredity. If the child is raised in an environment where he has proper nourishment, adequate rest and exercise, he will likely reach his full height. If a child is raised in an environment where he receives less than adequate care, he will probably not grow as tall as his heredity allows.

Let us examine the physical development, characteristic behavior and special needs of the school age child. We will consider a six-year-old, nine or ten-year-old and a preadolescent child.

About Six

Physical Development

- growth proceeds slowly, a lengthening out
- large muscles are better developed than small ones
- eleven to twelve hours of sleep are needed
- eyes are not yet mature, tendency toward farsightedness
- permanent teeth are beginning to appear
- heart is in period of rapid growth
- high activity level - can stay still only for short periods

Characteristic Behavior

- eager to learn, exuberant, restless, overactive, easily fatigued
- self-assertive, aggressive - wants to be first, less cooperative than at five, keenly competitive, boastful
- whole body is involved in whatever he does
- learns best through active participation
- inconsistent in level of maturity evidenced - regresses when tired, often less mature at home than with outsiders
- inept at activities using small muscles - relatively short periods of interest
- has difficulty making decisions
- group activities popular - boys' and girls' interests beginning to differ
- much spontaneous dramatization

Special Needs

- encouragement, ample praise, warmth, and great patience from adults
- ample opportunity for activity of many kinds, especially for use of large muscles
- wise supervision with minimum interference
- friends - by end a period, a best friend
- concrete learning situations and active, direct participation
- some responsibilities, but without pressure and without being required to make complicated decisions or achieve rigidly set standards
- help in developing acceptable manners and habits

About Nine or Ten

Physical Development

- growth is slow, steady - girls forge further ahead; some children reach the plateau preceding the preadolescent growth spurt
- lungs, digestive and circulatory systems are almost mature - heart especially subject to strain
- teeth may need straightening - first and second bicuspids appearing
- eye-hand coordination good - ready for crafts and shop work
- eyes almost adult size - ready for close work with less strain

Characteristic Behavior

- decisive, responsible, dependable, reasonable, strong sense of right and wrong
- individual differences distinct, abilities now apparent
- capable of prolonged interest - often makes plans and goes ahead on his own
- gangs strong, of short duration and changing membership limited to one sex
- perfectionistic - wants to do well, but loses interest if discouraged or pressured
- interested less in fairy tales and fantasy, more in his community and country and in other countries and peoples
- loyal to his country and proud of it
- spends a great deal of time in talk and discussion - often outspoken and critical of adults, although still dependent on adult approval
- frequently argues over fairness in games
- wide discrepancies in reading ability

Special Needs

- active, rough-and-tumble play
- friends and membership in a group
- training in skills, but without pressure
- books of many kinds, depending on individual reading level and interest
- reasonable explanations without talking down
- definite responsibility
- frank answers to their questions about coming physiological changes

The Preadolescent

Physical Development

- a "resting period", followed by a period of rapid growth in height and then growth in weight - this usually starts sometime between 9 and 13 - boys may mature as much as two years later than girls.
- girls usually taller and heavier than boys
- reproductive organs maturing - secondary sex characteristics developing
- rapid muscular growth
- uneven growth of different parts of the body
- enormous, but often capricious, appetite

Characteristic Behavior

- wide range of individual differences in maturity level
- gangs continue, though loyalty to the gang stronger in boys than in girls
- interest in team games, pets, television, radio, movies, comics
- marked interest differences between boys and girls
- teasing and seeming antagonism between boys' and girls' groups
- awkwardness, restlessness and laziness common as a result of rapid and uneven growth
- opinion of own group beginning to be valued more highly than that of adults
- often becomes overcritical, changeable, rebellious, uncooperative
- self-conscious about physical changes
- interested in earning money

Special Needs

- understanding of the physical and emotional changes about to come
- skillfully planned school and recreation programs to meet needs of those who are approaching puberty as well as those who are not
- opportunities for greater independence and for carrying more responsibility without pressure
- warm affection and sense of humor in adults - no nagging, condemnation, or talking down
- sense of belonging, acceptance by peer group

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT — SCHOOL AGE CHILD

Moral Development

Moral Development begins long before the age of six and continues long after the age of twelve. These inbetween years are very critical.

A child needs consistent and coherent experiences beginning in early life and continuing to help him make morally correct and upright decisions. Comments by teachers or parents about his behavior provide the child views about right and wrong behavior. Many times just the tone of an adult's voice or his facial expression helps a child to understand if a particular decision or action is considered "good" or "bad".

Morals are best taught through example within the family. A child may behave in a certain way so as to maintain an adult's approval. Researchers feel that conscience begins to develop in the home when a young child is emotionally dependent on his parents and when he feels accepted and secure in his love. If the home atmosphere of affection and mutual trust is maintained, the child tends to adopt his parent's values and standards of behavior and makes them his own.

To influence a child's moral development, parents must be able to inspire him to achieve what he is capable of. This is most effectively done when his parents:

1. value the child for himself,
2. have faith in the child that enables him to have faith in himself,
3. give recognition for effort, not just for achievement and
4. recognize and use the child's interests, assets and strengths.

A child learns more from what one does than from what one says. Moralizing is wasted unless supported by an example. Moral development tends to be a reflection of the way in which an individual has been treated or feels he has been treated. It is then the parent's responsibility to provide the necessary conditions in the home for facilitating moral development.

A warm atmosphere in a relationship between parents and the child is necessary. A warm parent:

1. listens to the child,
2. has frequent contacts with the child in situations other than disciplinary ones, such as greeting a child or showing him something interesting,

3. gives more praise than criticism and
4. is willing to give reasons and the principles basic to desirable behavior.

On the other hand, a cold parent may:

1. do more rejecting, ignoring, or more punishing,
2. not praise enough for sufficient learning,
3. listen less to the child and
4. not give reasons why certain behavior is desirable or undesirable.

Piaget's Fourth Stage of Development of Moral Judgment

Piaget's first three stages of development of moral judgment were discussed in Lesson 3, pages 14-17. Now we will concentrate on his fourth stage.

Between six and ten years of age, the conscience grows rapidly. At about age six, morality based on adult demands is firmly fixed. Usually a child makes great gains in self-control during these years. He adopts the ways of the adult society as ideals that seem to him right and best for his own personal code of behavior. This is where Piaget's fourth stage begins — recognizing that rules may be altered. A child, in the first few years of the school age stage, often experiences feelings of guilt and anxiety because he cannot be as good as his conscience would like him to be. He will blame and criticize himself even when others do not disapprove. Hence, his sense of conscience is sometimes excessive. He wants things to be either all right or all wrong. He tends to see things one way or the other and rarely does he have a compromising view.

To protect himself from his own or other's disapproval when he cannot live up to what is expected of him, he finds reasons to justify doing what he wants to do in spite of what he knows he should do.

By the age of nine and ten, a child begins to be less dependent on adults for his values and ideas. He begins to look toward his peers for values to accept as guides for behavior. Social awareness increases by the age of eleven or twelve.

Qualities of Moral Judgments as Described By Piaget

Below are Piaget's changes that mark the development from less mature to more mature moral judgment.

1. A shift from morals based on specific rules to more general conceptions of what is right or wrong.

2. A shift from belief that punishment for wrongdoing flows automatically from the child's acts, without the intervention of a punishing person. For example, if a child stumbles and hurts himself after grabbing another child's hat, he was hurt because he stole the hat.
3. A shift from moral conduct that is based on external demands toward a moral code based on internal standards which the child has adopted.
4. An increased ability to perceive rules of a game as rules based on mutual respect and consent.
5. An increased ability and willingness in judging the acts of others, to take into account the circumstances in which these acts occur and of the motives underlying them. For example, a young child may voice the opinion that to steal is to steal and all stealing is bad. When he is a little older, he will view the stealing of a loaf of bread by a hungry person as a less serious offence than the stealing of an apple by a well-fed person.

Along with the changes in a child's moral judgment, there are also changes in his views regarding justice and punishment. At first, justice requires that a person who has committed a wrong should suffer for it (expiation). The justice of retribution demands that if the child breaks your toy, you or an adult in authority should break his. Later on, the wrongdoer must make up for what he had done. This may mean giving up one of his toys or supplying the money for repairing the broken toy.

Child-Rearing Practices

Parents who have children with strong consciences are people who are characterized as accepting. The discipline procedures used by these parents are love-oriented, with reasoning.

Many parents have doubts about the value systems which they accepted as they grew up, and are uncertain about which values to pass on to their child. Lacking convictions of their own, many parents lack confidence in themselves and their decisions. A child, even a very young one, senses this uncertainty, confusion and inconsistency. This makes it difficult for the child to establish standards of right and wrong and to develop the conscience which is the major moral and ethical attainment of the early childhood years.

If training is very strict, a child's conscience tends to become too rigid. Intense feelings of guilt and anxiety will result and lead to unhappiness. To prevent this, a child should be encouraged to develop tolerance for minor weaknesses in himself and in others.

- Helping the Child with Moral Development

It is often desirable to aid the child's moral growth through indirect supervision instead of telling him directly that this or that has to be done. It is better to set up conditions where the choice is clear and where the consequences of either choice are well known to the child. Arbitrary demands do not work well. But letting the child see the difference and try it out for himself does work well. For example, a ten-year-old may want to spend his allowance on something the parents consider foolish, something he will quickly lose interest in. The parents prefer that he buy something else with his money. They may be able to show him the outcomes of both purchases by letting him talk with two other children who have already made the two different choices and purchases, and find out from them just what the value of each purchase is. Then he can decide for himself. This is far better, though more difficult and more time-consuming, than arbitrarily telling him that he must purchase such-and-such an object with his allowance. This kind of authority he often resists, and it is not the best way to teach him values be they moral, financial, or otherwise. Growth in responsibility and judgment are both necessary to moral and social development.

Moral Values and Judgments During Preadolescence

During the preadolescent period the child is becoming more concerned about moral judgments — what is wrong and what is right. He learns these things only gradually. In some studies of delinquent and nondelinquent boys of this age, it has been shown that these two groups do not differ in their knowledge of what is right or wrong. They differ in their habits and in their opportunities to do right or wrong, but they both know equally well that certain things are generally considered right or wrong. As the child approaches the adolescent years he is better able to understand rules and principles and regulations. His understanding of rules and principles helps him better to understand fair play and right and wrong. His growth in moral understanding can help pave the way for either better or poorer adjustment during the years of adolescence and early adulthood.

As a child matures from age six up to age twelve, he is better able to understand specific values which are aspects of broader moral values. For example, he can appreciate such things as property rights much better. He does not take things belonging to others and is better

able, with age, to tell when something probably belongs to someone else. This growth in understanding of property rights, ownership, and so on, comes gradually; it is not until the latter part of the elementary-school years that we notice great strides in the development of such judgments.

- Inconsistencies in Moral Judgments

Since this growth does not take place all at once, there are bound to be slips, misjudgments and lapses in the child's moral behavior. As was mentioned earlier, the child may one day appear to be perfectly honest, reliable and cooperative, but the next day throw all these qualities to the winds. One cannot expect perfect behavior and one cannot expect that changes will occur once and then remain fixed and final. There is bound to be much backtracking. Adults need to recognize that this is generally true for the growing child.

A child may also be trying sincerely to understand right and wrong ways of doing things but get insufficient help from adults. The child can also be thrown into conflict between different codes of right and wrong — one thing may be demanded at school and another at home. John's mother may require him to do certain things as a matter of principle but Bill's mother may not share these beliefs. John and Bill may conflict with each other — or their ideas may conflict — as a result. Adults, themselves, do not present clear standards. If a child is confused about many ways of behaving, it is not surprising, considering the unclear and inconsistent standards given to him by adults.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT — SCHOOL AGE CHILD

Character Development — Early Elementary School Years

Developing desirable personal characteristics is important at this age as it is at all ages. Around age six the child is still largely dependent upon his parents and looks to them for aid and assistance. He tends to idolize them and considers them the most important people in the world. Beginning at about age seven the child tends to become increasingly interested in other people, to extend his emotional and social relationships to others beyond his own home. Consequently the parents are somewhat reduced in importance for him. Character development is aided if, up to age six, the child can maintain a wholesome attachment to his parents. This will help to give him the strength and stability necessary for wholesome attachments to others as he grows older.

After age seven, the child's attachment to others in a larger social world becomes increasingly important to character development. This is the time when people other

than the parents may exert a lot of influence on the child. He needs to have the opportunity to identify with stable people through his contacts with the movies, the radio, TV and other sources of information and entertainment. He needs stable people for his friends, teachers, acquaintances and superiors. People who are indifferent toward children, or abusive or over-critical, or who over-punish them are all poor material for the young child to identify with. One's character tends to develop in the direction of one's associations with other people. If these relationships with others are agreeable and wholesome, the child's character will be desirably strengthened and he will be a sounder, happier person. There are countless cases of young boys and girls between ages seven or eight and twelve years whose character development has been too much influenced by older people who serve as poor models for the child's character development.

Character, then, is not something we are born with. Rather it grows and develops like anything else, and is primarily influenced by the nature of the child's relationships with the older people who serve as models for his behavior and attitudes.

School Experiences

When a child leaves home to start school, he wonders how he fares with the rest of the school children. He may ask some of the following: "Will my friends and family like me as much when I begin to lose my teeth, when my feet seem too big for my body, or when I have a report card that is different from my brother's or sister's?" In other words, will there still be the love for him as an individual, despite his uniqueness?

- Cooperative Social Behavior

At the first-grade level, the child is beginning to play well and to cooperate in social situations. Group games begin to be more popular and enjoyable than they have ever been before. Since school experiences are largely group experiences, the child gets an opportunity to develop more fully in social learning. Sharing possessions, taking turns at play, choosing sides for games and so on, all begin to be more prevalent in the everyday lives of this child. At school, then, he is learning many things besides what he is specifically taught in the classroom. In fact, most of the important learning of the child takes place in a social atmosphere, where he is acquiring many attitudes and feelings about arithmetic, reading and his other courses, as well as learning these subjects themselves. He never learns a subject in isolation at school. All learning takes place in a social and emotional setting. Generally

speaking, our attitudes toward a particular subject have little to do with the subject itself, but reflect the social and emotional atmosphere that accompanied our learning of that subject.

- School Experiences May Be Difficult

Entering grade one can be difficult. If the child has never been away from home without his mother and has never played much with other children, then the experience of going to school can be frightening. The frightened child does not know what to think of all the other children, he does not know how to play with them and he often dislikes or is fearful of his teachers, or he may cling to his teacher as he does to his mother. Such children often have a hard time in the first grade, perhaps failing to learn reading and writing in two or three years of school, even though they are capable of doing so. Teachers have to understand that some children are like this because of the early experiences and home life they have had. Teachers have a hard time, too, with such children. Although it is the teacher's job to help the fearful child learn to like and profit from school it is nevertheless a difficult job.

Identification

Identification refers to copying or modeling or adhering to a group of which one feels a part. This definition focuses on sex-role identification acquired through learning.

A boy who has attained male identification is one who adopted maleness as his way of life. He views himself as being a male and he accepts both the advantages and disadvantages of his role. His sexual behavior, style of walking, talking and gesturing and pattern of interest are male. The boy has probably followed a model for his role and that model is probably his father whom he loves, respects and imitates in many ways in order to achieve his male identification. With girls, the same applies. The mother is usually the model for femaleness.

Cross-identification - modeling after the parent of the opposite sex - is significant for both boys and girls. A boy basically models after his father; however, some modeling after his mother should occur as well. Some commonly labelled feminine qualities like sweetness, tact, willingness to compromise, intuitiveness, sympathy, interest in people are useful to the male. If a boy has admired his mother and respected and incorporated some of her traits, he will become a more sympathetic and understanding husband and father to daughters without necessarily losing any of his manliness. Likewise, girls need to incorporate

some of their father's traits - assertiveness and forcefulness. Cross-identification allows for a deeper understanding of the other sex and promotes more compatible relationships. It is also advantageous because feminine and masculine roles in our culture are not clearly defined and are becoming even less so.

- Forces in Identification

In our culture, we are faced with a high divorce rate, faulty child-rearing practices and poor marriages. Then, how do so many children achieve adequate sex-typing and identification?

There are four factors that promote identification in the absence of parental figures.

1. There are parent-surrogates. A good kindergarten, elementary or junior high teacher can go a long way toward providing a favorable female model for a girl whose mother is weak, unsympathetic or absent. The average boy, however, may not encounter a male teacher until he is in junior high school. But aunts, uncles, friends and neighbors all can and certainly do help provide models for the child of either sex who has no parental model on which to develop. Boys can make a satisfactory identification with fathers who themselves are not particularly masculine in their patterns of interest and activity. This is because boys can accept themselves easily as males if they see their father as warm, understanding and rewarding. Once this basic psychological identification has been made, boys copy from other male behaviors that are most interesting to them. Scouting may have partly resulted from the need for a male model for identification. In our culture, girls have an advantage over boys in the development of identification because mothers usually are more available to them than fathers are to boys. But if the mother is unsatisfactory, the girl is doubly threatened by this increased exposure.
2. The second factor promoting identification is the transmission of favorable attitudes toward an absent or deceased spouse. Research indicates that mothers who pass on favorable attitudes toward their absent husbands rear children whose concepts of an identification with an ideal father is better than that of children whose mothers pass on unfavorable attitudes toward the absent father.
3. The third factor is a general force in the culture. Boys are rewarded for acting like boys and punished for acting like girls. A comparable process applies for

girls. Teachers, the peer group, and the community all exert pressure for the boy to achieve masculinity and the girls femininity. These pressures, although not always effective, are very powerful.

4. The fourth factor is the one of selective memory – the process of remembering the good and forgetting the bad. Children, even when their parents have neglected, rejected and punished them, forget the bad times and remember the good ones. They then create a model for identification for themselves.

- Sex Identification

The fact that boys prefer boys and girls prefer girls at this age illustrates a step that the child goes through in learning to become a member of his own sex group. This is often referred as to sex identification, meaning that the child becomes aware of being a male or a female. This helps the child learn further the attitudes, interests and behavior typical of males and females in our culture. The child who, from an early age, has no opportunity to associate with members of the same sex may have some difficulty at adolescence in being masculine (or feminine, as the case may be). Adolescent boys who are very feminine have usually had little opportunity to associate with and to identify with other boys or men during their growing years. The same holds true for masculine girls. Many of the feminine men and the masculine women we see have not gotten that way because of physical or physiological characteristics but because of social and emotional factors that were important in their development, especially during the ages from six or seven to adolescence.

Behavior in the Later Elementary School Years

- Inconsistency in Behavior

Often one hears people ask the following questions about the child between the ages nine and twelve: "Why can't you depend upon them?" "How can you tell what they will do next?" "Why have they changed so much?" The child often varies between being very cooperative and dependable on the one hand to being negative and undependable on the other hand. The child may be rude and disrespectful one minute and patient and courteous the next. One day the parent or teacher will think the child has "turned over a new leaf", only to find the next day that the child is worse than ever before. This inconsistency is normal; much of it is to be expected as part of growing up. The child's tendency to act grown up or childish, almost at the same time, is an aspect of his maturing. One never matures

evenly and steadily in all respects; maturing is jagged and rough with a great amount of backsliding. This is true for all development at all ages. One simply sees certain irregularities or inconsistencies at certain ages. The child in the later elementary-school period is still exploring, trying out new ways of behaving; he does not yet know fully what is expected of him. Sometimes he sees things the way a younger child does and at other times he sees them as an older child does; hence the "inconsistency" in his behavior. When this inconsistency occurs, the child needs help and praise, not criticism and punishment. When he behaves maturely he should be praised; when he is childish he needs understanding, instruction and help.

- Resentment of the Opposite Sex

During this age range the child is very conscious of being either a boy or a girl. Antagonisms grow up between the sexes; boys will have nothing to do with the "sissy girls" and the girls will have little to do with the "mean, rough boys". It is difficult to get them together at parties or social gatherings; boys will not go if they know girls will be there. Competition is common at school, often with boys lining up against girls. But by the end of this age period, at the beginning of adolescence, the picture will be different and boys and girls will begin to develop much interest in each other.

- Gang-Age Resentment of Authority

During this period the child and his gang often resist adult authority and supervision. At a later age, however, he does not resist authority as much (for example, the time when strong affection and respect is developed for scoutmaster, teacher, and so on). During the later elementary-school period the child has not yet developed much team spirit. He is still very individualistic. It is more difficult to get him to cooperate in the same way he will when he is of high-school age. Teachers and other adults often find the child of this age hard to work with. Although this age range is often spoken of in connection with "the gang spirit", the gangs such children form tend to form and break down quickly and never seem to show very much organization. The child seems to resent the authority of the organized aspects of gang behavior as he does adult authority.

- Effects of Family Problems

Family problems may affect the child quite markedly during this period of time. Children of this age who are referred to child-guidance clinics are very often referred on the basis of conflicts with adult authority. Conflicts

with parents, teachers and other adults are common. These boys and girls strongly want to do just whatever they want at the moment, yet need adult guidance because of their immaturity. They look to other children their own age and to the gang for their standards. Because other children cannot really give them the help they need, they are sometimes unhappy and resentful. Adult help has to be given with interest and with care; they will not take help just because it is offered if they have much resentment against adults.

- Still More Growth Toward Independence

As was already mentioned, the child of this age shows general development toward maturity and independence. He wishes to rely more and more upon himself, and less upon older persons as he had to do when much younger. This feeling of independence is wholesome and constructive. Without it, and without growth in this direction, we could never become independent adults capable of directing our own lives.

With proper opportunities the child of this age can use his desires for independence in constructive ways. Parents can help the child gain greater independence by extending to him gradually the opportunities to assert himself and to learn from these attempts. If he is always treated as a young child, he naturally resents this. Too little independence may lead him to assert himself all at once, in an unwise fashion, and result in immature rather than mature action.

At school, too, the child can gradually be given greater independence. Honor systems can be gradually introduced. More self-regulation on the playground and more independence in studying and in working out assignments can be gradually given to the child of this age. Part-time jobs at school or after school can help give the child a feeling that he is somebody in his own right and that he can do things well without depending always upon adults to guide his every act. Troubles arise out of independence when the adult fails to give the child liberties and responsibilities appropriate to his age, and when the child rebels he wants his independence all at once. A compromise is necessary and desirable.

Social Climate and Moral Development

Social climate refers to the general atmosphere of social relationships in which a child lives. There is, for example, a big difference between classrooms where the teacher is bossy, sarcastic and critical, and classrooms where the teacher is easygoing, helpful and encouraging. Everyone has experienced these kinds of differences in the social

climate of a group. You may like one group of boys or girls because of the things they do and because of their general attitude. Another group you may not like because they are always fussing and fighting, because they never seem to get anywhere, or because they have different interests. The social climates in these two groups, as in two classrooms at school, are very different. In an easy-going, informal social climate one learns to do things without being pressured all the time. In a more critical social atmosphere one is told what to do and how and when to do it, no room being left for one's own feelings or choices or preferences. If a person always seems to find himself in a critical, demanding atmosphere at home or at school, he will soon begin to think that one cannot get people to do anything except through force or threat. In such an atmosphere or social climate people do not do things except under pressure. In the more relaxed atmosphere — like that of the easygoing classroom — students learn to do things because they like to, because they enjoy the association with other pleasant people and because it is to their benefit as well.

The kind of social atmosphere that exists in one's home and in one's schoolroom will go a long way toward determining whether one learns moral choices wisely or unwisely. In studies of group atmospheres, it was found that children in relaxed, democratic atmospheres did their job better, took hold of responsibilities more completely, and enjoyed their associations with others to a higher degree. In nondemocratic authoritarian atmospheres the children were not as able to make decisions and choices, did not work together as well, did not work industriously and criticized more the work of their playmates. Moral choices in the sense of responsibilities, fairness toward others and enjoyable cooperation are much more easily formed in a relaxed, democratic social atmosphere (at home, in school, or elsewhere) than in any other kind. One reason why children of this age do not build up moral choices and responsibilities is that they simply do not have a chance to do so. Often they have experienced the wrong kinds of group relationships — at home and at school — and are not able to exercise the best moral choices.

The Family

The family is the most important force affecting a child's development. Its emotional attachments are crucial in the development of all relationships. A child begins to understand how human beings relate to each other. The home is the place where a child feels totally accepted. When family members are after the child to improve or change, the child's feelings of security are affected.

A family represents a social status, an ethnic background, and a religion which dictate certain rituals, habits and attitudes. While a child eventually chooses which attitudes he will accept and adopt for himself, he is originally influenced by his early exposure at home.

The community also has expectations of the child based upon his background. The successes or failures of other members of the family influence the child's development and behavior.

Experiences that a child has within a family develop in him a sense of acceptance or rejection. When a parent or both parents reject a child, he is likely to be aggressive, attention-getting, hostile, hyperactive, jealous, or rebellious. Too much attention, on the other hand, hinders a healthy development if it prevents a child from assuming responsibility. Parents can also hinder a child's social development. Sometimes, parents choose a child's friends or hinder him from making social contacts outside the family. For example, a mother may dominate a child by being the victim, the martyr, the weak or self-sacrificing individual and does not permit him to step out into the world. The father can also develop a faulty relationship with the child by demanding excessive obedience.

The best home atmosphere for the child is one where the parents provide encouragement, acceptance and love. Parents need to provide the child with a set of standards and security. A child needs to have an opportunity to take on responsibilities and make choices at an early stage in life. He needs to be allowed to experience the consequences of poor choices (the consequences should not be too serious). In other words, he should be permitted to profit from his mistakes so that he will be better able to cope with the realities of life.

Each family has a distinct structure. The first child is a new experience for the parents and all their affection is directed to that child. When the second child arrives, there is a shift in positions. Now, the new arrival gains all the attention and the older child in a sense feels deposed. The birth of each succeeding baby brings about new interactions and new interrelationships. Each family member must adjust to these changes.

Rivalry between siblings is almost universal. It stems from the children wanting to be first in the eyes of their parents. It is a natural part of growing up. Rivalry is observed when a child tries to break a toy of a sibling. It is seen again in the child who tries to hurt a younger sibling.

The following case study illustrates sibling rivalry within a family.

Tom was one year older than his brother John. Tom was an "active-constructive" child. He was ambitious, tried hard to do things and enjoyed success. John, being one year younger, couldn't compete successfully when he was young, so it seems that he decided not to compete for anything Tom could do well. Tom was a good swimmer; John didn't seem to enjoy swimming. Tom played a good game of baseball; John wasn't too interested in it. Tom liked dominoes and card games. John wouldn't concentrate on either game and rejected them. Later, if John liked whole kernel corn, John didn't. He liked cream style better. If Tom liked frozen beans, John refused them and wanted canned beans. Tom planned to go to college; John wouldn't consider it. John took an automobile mechanics course at a technical school. How do you think John could become himself instead of a "not Tom" person?

Each child makes decisions to cope with his situation within the family unit. For example, a child who is aggressive in demanding his rights could stimulate aggression or withdrawal in the other siblings. Some children cope most effectively with their brothers or sisters by being the "good" child, by defeating their siblings at every turn, by being "better", or by making certain that the parents note the difference.

Effects of Audio-Visual Equipment in the Home

During the age period of six to ten years, children become increasingly interested in movies, TV, radio and comics. All of these forms of entertainment are potentially useful and educational. Actually, these are often harmful. It is understandable that children are interested in the drama, action and suspense that they see in or hear from these sources of entertainment. It is important, therefore, that the programs be suitable for children. These should be monitored by the parents, but many of them are not.

Some of the unwholesome programs include murder, theft, and other unfavorable aspects of human behavior. Too often the "villain" or lawbreaker is played up as an admirable person and is able to get away with things we do not permit in everyday living. The child who sees or hears these kinds of programs is not old enough or mature enough to be able to select good programs for himself. He begins to see the shady side of people as normal, attractive, exciting and right. Even when the villain gets punished at the end of the story, this does not offset in vividness

and attractiveness all the unfair gains he made before he was caught. Very little time in such stories or programs is given to what happens when the anti-social person is caught, and a lot of space is given to all his earlier pranks at someone else's expense.

This does not imply that these kinds of entertainment alone make the child mean or unlawful or disrespectful when he was normal to begin with. But such programs may, and do, intensify tendencies of an unwholesome nature and help to misdirect the child's behavior. Such programs make for poor citizenship if the individual is taught that violence is normal.

Also, children may be frightened by horror movies, TV shows and comics. They may show that fear by having nightmares, by being unusually tense and excitable and by adopting the behavior, talk and dress of characters from these sources of entertainment. Often, too, these forms of entertainment monopolize the child's time. He may sit for hours glued to one of these sources of entertainment, to the exclusion of other, more wholesome social outlets.

THE PEER GROUP

From the family, the child moves to a peer group relationship. The peer group assumes an increasingly important role in the formation of a child's social behavior. To ensure his acceptance by a peer group, a child learns to accept the group's interests and values. This can be positive or negative. For example, if the child's peer group dislikes school, this can influence his attitude toward school. He must verbalize the dislike for school or run the risk of being rejected by the group. If his friends gripe, he will gripe. He cannot afford to be different because this might jeopardize his status in the group. Belonging is a basic need and belonging to the peer group gives the child a social identity.

The peer group is useful to the child in other ways. It can provide the child with contact with children of various religions, social classes and ethnic backgrounds. It can help him to learn to accept, work with, and cooperate with people who hold different opinions and beliefs. The peer group also provides a child with an unique set of give-and-take relationships. For the child to belong to a specific peer group, he must live within the code of that group, keep its secrets and be willing to meet its expectations.

Increasing Interest in Group Activities

Group activities have gradually increased in interest to the child beginning with age six or seven. At age seven he is just finishing the first grade or just beginning the

second. He begins about this time to be less dependent upon his parents and more dependent upon what others his own age think. By the time he enters second grade, he has already had one year of practice in living more with his own age group and less with his parents.

This allegiance to his own age group means that he feels his parents to be somewhat less important to him than they were when he was smaller. He is sometimes likely to take another boy's or girl's word for something before he will his parents'. The child of eight to ten also wants to do things more and more the way other children do - to dress and talk like them and to be with them for play activities. Neighborhood gangs often form during this time.

- Gangs

Gangs may or may not be "bad". In very poor and dilapidated neighborhoods gangs may engage in destructive activities such as stealing, breaking and entering, annoying others and so on. When gangs do these things they are often referred to as delinquent gangs because they get into trouble with the law. Delinquent girls and boys, as well as delinquent gangs, are often just normal boys and girls who have very few or very poor outlets for their social interests and activities. Recent efforts to cut down on city slums and to develop play and recreational areas and parks have all been helpful in giving children better social and recreational outlets and in potentially reducing delinquency.

- Delinquents are Made, Not Born

Young boys and girls may learn to become delinquents because they grow up in underprivileged areas, often come from emotionally broken homes and often have no wholesome places at which to carry on play activities. In view of these adverse conditions it is not hard to understand why delinquencies occur.

INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT - SCHOOL AGE CHILD

Thought Processes

The thought processes of children differ in quality from those of adults. Adults' thought processes are more abstract. One prerequisite for abstract thinking is the ability to classify, and young children cannot do this. They relate their thinking to their own personal experiences and whatever information they have acquired. At the school age level, a child is not able to solve many of his problems intellectually because he does not have the necessary mental

tools. For example, when a young child is asked, "What is a mother?" He may answer, "A mother wears an apron, works in the kitchen and makes cookies." Or, a child may be asked, "Is a cat your sister?" He may answer, "Yes, because she lives in the same house."

Young preschoolers classify objects on the basis of their own personal experience. They focus on family schemes and personal relations and usually ignore abstract concepts of color, shape and size. For example, a preschool child may classify blocks into families, the large ones being the "father" and "mother" and the small ones being the "babies". When this child enters school, he detaches himself from his personal and emotional framework and can focus on abstract properties of things. His classification system becomes more sophisticated as he focuses on a wider range of properties.

To help children learn and to be able to explain ideas and events to them, we as parents, babysitters and teachers must have an understanding of their thought processes.

Let us follow this example to help clarify some aspects of their thinking.

John is six years old. Skippy, the family puppy, has been his constant companion. He refers to the puppy as Skippy Jones, just as he is known as Johnny Jones. One day the family car is parked on a hill, rolls backwards and kills Skippy, who is sitting behind it. John is heartbroken. His mother tries to make him feel better by explaining that it was an accident. Someone forgot to set the brakes, and so, the car, rolling backwards, ran over Skippy and killed him. Skippy should not have been sitting behind the car. When mother sees that John is still very unhappy, she tells him that they may soon be able to get another dog just like Skippy.

How well does John understand what his mother is trying to tell him? How well is he equipped to understand the meaning of this experience? Does John know what death means? Does he know what life means? Is everything that moves alive? Then the car that killed Skippy must be alive also and must have decided to do it. The car might want to kill him, John, too, if he did something that was against the rules. Does John understand that human beings can only produce human beings? Or does he think Skippy Jones is as much a member of his family as he is? In that case, if he (John) was run over, would his parents soon get a new boy and forget him? How much do we know of his real thoughts and concepts?

One can find great variation in children's reactions to similar situations:

1. John may think that Skippy is a true member of the family, that the car is alive and therefore may decide to run over him also, and that his parents then might easily replace him. Consequently, he feels great anxiety and grief.
2. John may have come to no conclusions, one way or another, about the identity of Skippy and of the car. (This is rare. Children want to master their surroundings and they are more likely to arrive at a wrong conclusion than at no conclusion.)
3. John may believe the true and the false at the same time (without being disturbed about it), leaning more toward one concept than the other depending on his frame of mind. He might feel at one moment that Skippy is his brother, while at the same time he may be aware that this is not true. His feelings also would vacillate.
4. John may have a true understanding of the situation. This would mean that he realizes Skippy was only a pet in the home. He also knows, then, that the car is not alive, that it ran over the dog by accident, and that there was no purpose behind the incident. In this case, he can view the incident realistically and concentrate his feelings where they actually belong, in grief over the loss of his dog.

Through assimilation of more ideas and through accommodation of his ideas to reality, John discovers that people's brothers are only people. Then he is able to correct his former idea that Skippy is a brother — only people can be brothers.

As a child's thought processes mature, he learns to put things together according to two or more criteria. He realizes that a geometrical figure can be both blue and round and can put all blue circles together. When John reaches this level, he can classify Skippy with his family when referring to all living beings in his home, but not when human beings are the criterion.

In time, a child masters the concept of reversibility. This is the concept of things returning to their original condition after manipulation. A child can turn a footstool upside down and use it as a raft with four poles but when turned right side up, he can see it is still a footstool. A red and blue reversible jacket is still both red and blue even though only the blue may be visible at the moment. By reversing it, the red will be seen.

When a child has mastered all these different operations, he has reached the stage at which he can understand the concept of conservation. Conservation is one part of the ability to think in abstract terms. Conservation refers to the knowledge that a quantity does not change even though the form in which it appears does change. In other words, if nothing is added to or subtracted from an object, the amount stays the same whether the shape is changed or the material is divided into pieces. For example, a piece of aluminum foil crumpled up contains the same amount of foil as before it was crumpled. Nothing has been added or taken away. A child who understands conservation knows that the piece of foil may acquire different shapes without changing its original qualities. His conclusions are drawn according to a concept of reality. He does not let sensory perception of visual evidence overrule his judgment. When John masters this concept, he will understand that Skippy was like a member of the family in some respects but not in others. Skippy was always a dog.

Children reach the conservation stage at different ages. According to Piaget, conservation appears between the ages of eight and twelve years.

Grades Two, Three and Four

Once off to a good start in school, the child can feel secure and can enjoy learning. A happy and profitable experience in the first grade can go a long way toward making the second, third and fourth grades worthwhile. One reason why studying and learning may be hard in grades two, three and four is that teachers and parents may have given the child poor attitudes and unsatisfactory experiences in grade one.

Another reason why studying and learning may be hard in the upper grades is that teachers and parents may expect too much of children in grade one. Modern schools have become more relaxed about what they expect of the first grader. Learning to read is not necessarily the main objective of grade one. It is really better that the child develop generally favorable attitudes toward school; then the learning will follow more easily and naturally in terms of the child's capacity to learn. Crowding him too much with difficult learning tasks in the first grade causes the child to resist the teacher's efforts and to develop negative attitudes toward school requirements.

Grades two, three and four bring the child up through the fundamentals and get him fairly well versed in reading, writing and arithmetic. The child also becomes more proficient in his study of nature, science, music, art and so on.

- General Development at These Ages

By the time the child has finished the fourth grade he is close to ten years of age. He has by this time developed a great amount of facility with language, knows his town or city fairly well, has a good grasp of many of his school subjects and is developing broad interests in many things. He has also become more group-minded and spends almost all of his playtime in groups.

- Imagination is Active

During the early elementary school years the child's imagination is particularly active. He enjoys stories, fairy tales and myths. He also enjoys stories about other children and about their activities. The latter type of story is really better for a child, in a mental-hygiene sense. Fairy tales and myths may be interesting and they may have educational value, but the emphasis is placed on magic, unreal solutions to problems, and impossible events which tend to create faulty attitudes in the child. He tends to think that he can get things he wants for nothing, or by wishing, or by appealing to a "fairy godmother". Since children's imaginations are active anyhow, there is no need to overstimulate them in this regard. It is better that their imagination be centered around real, common, everyday experiences and the enjoyments of children their age. Stories about real people, or at least people who could exist; stories about animals, about trips to zoos; stories about trips to factories or farms; stories about how children engage in this or that activity are all entertaining and wholesome. Through such stories, the parent or teacher can help instill attitudes of fair play, and an interest in and love for others. Stories that are too exciting may stimulate restless dreams or nightmares. It is desirable that children's imaginations be stimulated not by stories that include violence, hate, or wishful thinking, but by stories that center around enjoyable and pleasant social activities. Overstimulating stories are especially undesirable just before bedtime.

School Success

Teachers have a great influence on a child's school adjustment, personality and academic achievement. They can influence a child's decision about values as well as his choice of career.

The teacher's values are communicated directly to the students through rules, comments, commands and discussions. The teacher becomes a model for the student. The student strives to get the teacher's approval. We have all heard this statement coming from a second grader, "No mom, my teacher wants me to do it this way and that's the right way."

Many parental factors influence a child's achievement in every school grade. These include:

1. the emotional relationships between parents and children.
2. activities of parents towards school achievement.
3. parents' concern for and interest in a child's performance.

Parents who make negative comments about the school, the school curriculum, or teachers hinder the child's growth in school. The child becomes torn between two loyalties — loyalty to his home and loyalty to his school.

Academic achievement depends on the following factors:

1. intellectual ability
2. level of maturity
3. relationship with parents
4. emotional and personality factors
5. past success and failures
6. attitude toward school
7. the teacher
8. socioeconomic status and
9. patterns of interest.

In other words, the academic skills a child acquires reflect the effectiveness of the school and his self-concept which we will discuss next.

Self-Concept

Self-concept is the center of personality. It includes everything that the child believes about himself and it includes what he assumes other people think of him. A child learns to feel important, loved and successful. He learns that he can explore and discover and create. He recognizes that he can have things and do things. In other words, he develops self-confidence and self-respect. These attitudes develop from being treated with respect which stems from having trust in people around him.

The development of a child's self-concept is influenced by many significant people particularly his parents. For this reason, it is important that parents give their child lots of attention, praise and approval, and treat the child with respect.

- Development Is Consistent and Steady

It is important to remember that the child's development can be helped and guided by proper educational procedures, but it cannot be rushed. The child will develop

at his own comfortable rate. Efforts to make him learn his school work earlier than usual, or to expect great progress from him in music or athletics, are likely to harm his interest in learning and create unwholesome mental-hygiene problems for him. The child's over-all development is forward, toward maturity. There are times when he seems to stand still or even to go backward. These periods, however, are short-lived; often, under the surface, the child is really advancing in an orderly manner.

Intellectual Development in the Later Elementary School Years

Great strides in intellectual development are made by the child between ages nine and twelve. He no longer thinks as the young child does but has now begun to approach closer and closer to the more mature ways of adult thinking. Some of the characteristics of intellectual development during this age period are the following:

1. The child increases in capacity to explain physical facts in terms of causal relations. He is less inclined to offer imaginative explanations — for example, he will probably know why water rises in a glass tumbler when you drop a rock into it. He begins to understand the movement of clouds, the work of gravitational forces and other natural events in more nearly correct scientific and causal terms. He understands that clouds do not move "because they want to move", but because of wind and air pressures acting upon them. He also becomes more logical in that he can reason better, using one situation as a basis for explaining other situations and coming out with plausible answers.
2. The child becomes more realistic in evaluating himself and his relations to others. Since he is more concerned about his relations to others in his play and school groups, he becomes more skillful in evaluating other people. Since he is less dependent upon older people for their opinions, he is able to develop opinions more on his own and with greater understanding. He is better able to evaluate teachers, parents and others. He learns that bigger boys or girls may not necessarily be stronger or more skillful at some sport or game just because they are bigger. He learns that another child may be good at baseball but not at swimming, that people have strong and weak points. He learns that people can be evaluated in objective ways rather than in terms of bias or prejudice or subjective evaluations.
3. He develops more leisure-time activities according to his own preferences. We have already mentioned how the child's reading preferences and the amount of reading increase during this period. The fact that

reading interests are broad also illustrates the fact that all of his activities are spread out over many fields of interest. In a sense the child of this age is a Jack-of-all trades. He dabbles in everything, but with more interest and with more understanding than the younger child. He begins to see that certain types of activities are more to his liking than others. It is probably true that the basis for many later vocational choices are made during this period of childhood. If a child is very mechanically inclined or good at any particular kind of activity, he is likely to have discovered it during the wide-range experimentation of these preadolescent years.

- Mature Language Development

By the end of the later elementary school period, the child generally has a fairly mature command of language. His ability to comprehend spoken and written language makes his vocabulary number well above ten thousand words. He does not use all of these words in everyday speech or writing, but he is capable of understanding them in the speaking and writing of others. He is beginning to comprehend many abstract words like "truth", "beauty", "justice", "honor" and so on. The fact that the child has to be near the end of the childhood stage before he can understand these concepts shows how futile it is to try to teach them to him when he is as young as five. We often observe attempts to teach these abstract concepts before age ten and expect the child to gain full understanding, but this is largely a waste of time. Concrete teaching of fair play, taking one's turn, respecting the property and the ideas and feelings of others and so on, as have been pointed out already, is a more realistic and more valuable method of moral instruction.

Grammatical mistakes such as "He hasn't came yet" or "I haven't saw him" occur much less often than they do at earlier ages. The child's ability to express himself in writing has also matured remarkably by the end of the childhood period. He can write longer, more interesting and more coherent stories. He is able to give a good summary of stories he has read without seriously altering the original story.

In many ways the child at this stage can use language as well as the average adult. This is true as far as basically correct English and command of vocabulary are concerned. Modern schools try to emphasize the child's spontaneous and natural inclinations toward speaking and writing. English classes often devote much time toward helping the child write original stories, plays, and poems and aid the child in making speeches and in oral presentations of stories he has read. The ability to spell correctly

increases markedly toward the end of this age range. Children gain steadily in learning how to sound out words and to make systematic attempts to spell them correctly. Correct spelling tends to be associated with correct enunciation and pronunciation of words. Since the child's use of language is more comprehensive and more exact, better spelling, speaking and pronunciation tend to follow.

- Sex Education

If this gang age can be a happy and constructive period, then the child is better prepared for the adolescent years to follow. Sex education, like moral training, can be beneficial to boys and girls of this age. Although group values and group teaching are important, the first efforts at sex education during this age may have to be made along individual lines. For example, the child's interest in sex and his general lack of knowledge may lead him to ask questions in private that he would not dare ask in a classroom discussion. Sometimes class discussion simply does not cover every question for every child. Some compromise between individual and group instruction in sexual matters is highly desirable. The child has a right to ask questions about things which bother him. This right should be respected, and it should be respected in private if that is the way the child wants it. The child may often pick up much false information about sex and he will need individual counsel in order to help set him straight. The group influences of other children can often be utilized to help an individual child; properly guided instruction about sexual matters can help to give the child more natural and wholesome ideas.

EXERCISE 1: Multiple Choice

Select the best possible answer and place the appropriate letter in the space to the left of each question.

- _____ 1. Tony is six years old. His growth is considered average for his age. One would expect his physical development to be
- a. permanent teeth beginning to appear and a high energy level.
 - b. reproductive organs maturing.
 - c. having an enormous appetite.
 - d. a "resting period" followed by a period of rapid growth in height and then weight.
- _____ 2. A child who has developed a rigid conscience will
- a. develop intense feelings of guilt and anxiety which lead to unhappiness.
 - b. make great gains in self-control.
 - c. look to his peers for values to accept or guides for behavior.
 - d. extend his emotional and social relationships to others beyond his own home.
- _____ 3. Self-concept is defined as
- a. the concept of things returning to their original condition after manipulation.
 - b. the ordering of things according to size or any common property.
 - c. the knowledge that a quantity does not change even though the form in which it appears does change.
 - d. everything that the child believes about himself including what he assumes other people think of him.
- _____ 4. Kathy is ten years old. Her behavior is average for her age. A good example of what her behavior is like at this age is
- a. she has a sense of belonging, acceptance by peer group.
 - b. gangs are strong, but of short duration and usually membership is limited to one sex.
 - c. her heart is in a period of rapid growth.
 - d. inconsistency in level of maturity evidenced by regression when tired. She is often less mature at home than with outsiders.

_____ 5. Conservation is

- a. learning to accept and internalize rules.
- b. knowing that a quantity does not change even though the form in which it appears does change.
- c. the returning of things to their original condition after manipulation.
- d. the ordering of items according to size.

_____ 6. Sex identification means that

- a. the child becomes aware of being a male or a female.
- b. the child copies a group of which he feels a part.
- c. The child models after the parent of the opposite sex.
- d. the child learns to internalize rules.

EXERCISE 2: True and False

Carefully read each statement below and decide if it is true or false. If the statement is true, circle the T to the left of each statement. If it is false, circle the F and change the highlighted portion of the statement to make it true.

- T F 1. *Environment* accounts for individual differences among children, namely, intellectual potential and physical traits.

- T F 2. By the time the child is *six years old*, he can use language as well as an average adult, that is, basic correct English and command of vocabulary.

- T F 3. A *preadolescent* has the special need to belong and to be accepted by a peer group.

- T F 4. For a child to be a sound and happy person, *he should have a wholesome attachment to his parents and have the chance to identify with stable people.*

T F 5. *Learning to read* is the main objective of grade one.

T F 6. According to Piaget, children reach the conservation stage at between *six and eight years*.

T F 7. Delinquents *are born, not made*.

T F 8. The peer group assumes an increasingly important role in the formation of a child's *social behavior*.

T F 9. It is many times more desirable to aid the child's *moral growth* through indirect supervision instead of telling him directly that this or that has to be done.

T F 10. *Beginning at the age of seven*, the child becomes increasingly interested in other people, extending his emotional and social relationships to others beyond his own home.

T F 11. Parents that *are accepting and use love-oriented discipline procedures* create a strong conscience in children.

- T F 12. A child is not born with a character; it grows and develops and is *primarily influenced by the nature of the child's relationships with the older people who serve as models for his attitudes and behavior.*
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- T F 13. A child never learns a subject in isolation at school. All learning takes place *in a physical and intellectual setting.*
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- T F 14. A child *does not mature evenly and steadily in all respects*; he has a tendency to act grown up or childish almost at the same time.
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- T F 15. It is better for a child's imagination *to center around real, common, everyday experiences and the enjoyments of children his age.*
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EXERCISE 3: Short Answers

Answer the following questions as accurately and concisely as possible.

1. Do school experiences affect children's cooperative social behavior? How?
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2. Why does the behavior of preadolescents seem to be inconsistent?

3. How can parents help ensure success in school for their children?

4. Is delinquency a product of heredity? Explain.

5. How do children get their sex-role identification?

6. How can the developing individual be affected by the influence of radio, television, motion pictures and comic books?

7. What is the relationship between moral values and whether your parents are democratic or authoritarian?

8. How can a parent create a warm atmosphere in the parent-child relationship?

9. Why is cross-identification desirable in our society?

EXERCISE 4: Short Paragraph

In a short paragraph discuss: "How physical growth affects social acceptance." Be careful with your sentence structure, grammar and punctuation.

[illegible]

MODULE EVALUATION

Please evaluate this module. It is essential that accurate descriptive words are used to analyze it. Good, well done, awful or gross do not tell us much. We need your feedback to improve the module. The information you give us will not affect your grading in any way. What did you like about the module and why? In what way do you feel the module could be improved? Your specific suggestions would be appreciated.

[illegible]

End of Child Study Module

N.L.C. - B.N.C.



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